AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF

Official Organ

Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf
Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf

Edited by

IRVING S. FUSFELD

Under the Direction of

PERCIVAL HALL, of the District of Columbia, 1939
FRANK M. DRIGGS, of Utah, *ex officio*
MADISON J. LEE, of Kentucky, 1939
ELWOOD A. STEVENSON, of California, 1945
IGNATIUS BJORLEE, of Maryland, 1942
ALVIN E. POPE, of New Jersey, 1942
CLARENCE J. SETTLES, of Florida, 1945

Executive Committee of the Conference

SEPTEMBER
1938

VOLUME 83 NUMBER 4

Vol. 83 No. 4

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF

Official Organ

Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf
Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf

Edited by

IRVING S. FUSFELD

Under the Direction of

PERCIVAL HALL, of the District of Columbia, 1939
FRANK M. DRIGGS, of Utah, *ex officio*
MADISON J. LEE, of Kentucky, 1939
ELWOOD A. STEVENSON, of California, 1945
IGNATIUS BJORLEE, of Maryland, 1942
ALVIN E. POPE, of New Jersey, 1942
CLARENCE J. SETTLES, of Florida, 1945

Executive Committee of the Conference

SEPTEMBER

1938

Contents

EDUCATION OF THE DEAF IN THE ORIENT...*Sam D. Palmer, M.A.* 291
Japan, 291; Korea, 294; China, 295; Philippine Islands, 298.
PROBLEMS OF DEAFNESS.....*Ethel B. Warfield* 300
PREVENTION OF DISEASES AND DISORDERS OF THE EARS BETWEEN THE AGES OF THREE AND TWELVE YEARS (INCLUSIVE).....
.....*Edmund Prince Fowler, M.D.* 306
Otosclerosis, 317.
THE MOSCOW THEATER OF THE DEAF.....*Max Polyanovsky* 320
A AND *The*.....*Alan Y. Crouter* 323
A VERB-TYPE METHOD OF LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION.....
.....*James N. Orman, B.A.* 330
Procedure, 331; The Transitive Verb Diagram, 332; The Intransitive Verb Diagram, 333; The Linking Verb Diagram, 333; The Simple Sentence, 334; The Compound Sentence, 335; The Complex Sentence, 335; Application of Diagrams, 337.
A READING PROJECT.....*Fannie Day Hurst* 338
The Skating Contest (from Hans Brinker)
TRAINED SUPERVISORS.....
.....*Alan B. Crammatte, M.A., and Max Friedman, B.S.* 343
OBJECTIVE TESTS FOR THE WOODWORKING SHOP.....
.....*Sam G. Benning* 349
I—True-False Test, 349; II—Single-Answer Test, 351; III—Multiple-Choice Test, 352; IV—Matching Test, 353; V—Completion Test, 354; VI—Identification Test, 355; VII—Oral Examination, 356; Key to Tests, 356.
ART EDUCATION FOR THE DEAF.....*Felix Kowalewski, B.A.* 359
GENERAL INFORMATION TEST SUGGESTIONS.....*L. R. Divine, E.E.* 363
FOR VARIETY IN DRILL.....*Mary Strickler LaRue* 367
Arithmetic, 367; Language, 369; Health Topics, 371; History or Geography, 371.
MISCELLANEOUS .....*I.S.F.* 372
Technique for Audiometric Testing in the Public Schools, 372; New Location of the New York School, 373; Summer Meeting of the Association, 373; Changes at Gallaudet College, 374; A Study of Vocational Training Opportunities Offered in Day-Schools, 375; Certification, 377; The Life of Mrs. Mills, 378; Death of Monsignor Gerend, 379; American Education Week, 1938, 379; The Mechanical Ability of Deaf Children, 380; Reports of Schools, 381.

The AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF is published bi-monthly during the school year, appearing in the months of January, March, May, September, and November. The subscription is $2.00 a year, payable in advance; January number, one dollar a copy; single numbers otherwise, 50 cents each. The subscription for foreign countries is $2.20 a year.

Publication office: 450 Ahnaip Street, Menasha, Wisconsin. Editorial office: Kendall Green, Washington, D.C. Entered as second-class matter at the Postoffice at Menasha, Wisconsin. Acceptance for mailing at the special rate of postage provided for in the Act of February 28, 1925, authorized June 25, 1932. Subscriptions made payable to the AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF may be sent to 450 Ahnaip Street, Menasha, Wisconsin, or to the Editor, Gallaudet College, Kendall Green, Washington, D.C.

GEORGE BANTA PUBLISHING COMPANY, MENASHA, WIS.

Vol. 83 SEPTEMBER, 1938 No. 4

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF

Education of the Deaf in the Orient

By SAM D. PALMER, M.A.
Instructor in the Territorial School, Honolulu, T.H.

THE following data were collected during a recent trip through the countries designated. Lack of sufficient time and the difficulty of obtaining suitable interpreters precluded any detailed studies of methods and practices. The information here presented is intended only to show the extent and general nature, as well as some interesting aspects, of the education of the deaf in the Orient.

JAPAN

The major portion of Japan's 62 schools for the deaf have been established within the past 10 to 20 years. Practically all of these schools are termed pure oral in method and are largely day-schools in prefecture (similar to state) centers.

The following statistics relate to these 62 schools:

618 teachers (of whom 189 are deaf)
5,077 pupils
512 graduates
¥130.06 (or U.S. $39) annual per-pupil expenditure

Schools are classified as Government, prefecture, city and private. The courses taught are similar to those in the United States, with heavy emphasis on mass gymnastics, in accordance with the national educational policy, and on occupational training, the latter particularly in older schools where much the same trades as in the United States are taught, with additions of Japanese style hair dressing, rubber-ware making, and some native crafts.

The average salaries per month in these schools follow:

	Yen	U.S. equivalent
Senior instructors	80	$24.00
Teachers	70	21.00
Staff Assistants	72	21.60
Clerks	47	14.10
Dormitory	22	6.60

Hearing children are required to attend school from four to six years, but there is no compulsory education for the deaf in Japan.

Of the Japanese deaf, one fourth are estimated to be financially independent, a like number to be partially independent, and the remaining one half to be fully dependent for their support.

The Tokyo Government School for the Deaf and Dumb (Mr. Hashimoto Kotaro, principal) maintains a normal department and carries on some research in the practices of teaching of speech.

Using Japanese X-ray equipment, the exact position of the organs of speech for a given sound is determined. In the procedure, a thin gold chain is laid down the middle of the tongue, one end extending well into the throat and the other held in the hand to prevent swallowing. The subject gives a prolonged sound while a profile X-ray plate is made. The position of the organs of speech is outlined by the chain which shows in the plate.

Other equipment of German make used is an osiso constructed with a small motor-driven revolving rectangular box with mirrors on the four long sides which show the voice and breath action carried over a wire from a sound-proof chamber. Graphs are made with the same equipment.

Neither of these two machines is used in regular instruction, but only for research and normal instruction. Their value for these purposes could not be accurately determined.

The nine members of the normal department are required to have had three years experience in schools for the hearing before they are admitted for the one-year normal course, during which year they are paid Yen 15 (U.S. $4.50) a month.

The Osaka City School for the Deaf (Mr. K. Takahashi,

principal) is the only school in Japan which classifies itself as a combined-method school.

The Japanese sign language is quite similar to that of the United States, many of the signs being identical. But the old Japanese alphabet, in which arm and hand movements rather than finger movements are used, is very crude and cumbersome and allows of only a limited discourse which is quite supplementary to the sign language.

A few years ago Mr. T. Fujii, dean of the same school, went to Europe, and Mr. Gensuke Osone, the head teacher, went to America to study, among other things, the sign languages and finger alphabets used on the two continents.

Following his return to Japan, Mr. Osone derived a new finger alphabet which was installed at the Osaka school two years ago, and which the teachers of that school expect to spread over Japan in later years.

The Japanese language being composed of syllabic rather than of single sounds, each hand formation in the new alphabet, except for the five vowels, represents a syllable, the English equivalent of which calls for two or three letters of the English alphabet.

Thus *Kana*, or the written Japanese alphabet, has 49 basic characters to which are added 25 other voiced or nasalized equivalents of certain of the basic characters.

Borrowing from the American finger alphabet, Mr. Osone set down the identical formations for a, e, i, o, and u in his alphabet. For syllables formed with k, s, t, n, h, m, y, r, and w in combination with the vowel "a," the corresponding American consonant formations were used. Thus, the closed fist in America represents the letter "s," whereas in Japan it represents the character for the syllable "sa."

To fill out the syllables formed by these same consonants, each in combination with all of the four remaining vowels, to complete the formations for the 49 basic characters, Mr. Osone used up the remaining 13 letters of the American hand alphabet without regard for similarities in sounds as the remaining consonants are not found in the Japanese language.

Still short of the total of 49 basic syllables, he filled in a

few more by reproducing the appearance of the written Japanese character with the fingers. And still further he used numerals from the Japanese sign language when the spoken word for such numerals was identical with the basic syllable when standing alone (*e.g.* "seven" in Japanese is pronounced "shi" which is also one of the basic syllables).

Also several Japanese conventional signs were introduced in the same manner, such as for the basic syllable "se" which also is the word for "elder brother," depicted in the Japanese sign language by holding the middle finger aloft.

The basic 49 being thus filled in, the 25 equivalents were provided for by adding motion either outward or upward to certain of the basic signs. Thus the index and middle fingers extended horizontally, which represent "h" in the United States, signify "ha" in Japan when displayed without movement; "ba" when moved outward; and "pa" when moved upward.

Korea

In Korea there are only two schools for the deaf, both of which receive also blind pupils. The Government School for the Deaf and the Blind is located at the capital city of Keijo with an enrollment of about 120 pupils and employing 15 Japanese and Korean teachers.

There is also a small Christian school at Pyeng Yang. Only this school was visited. Statistics follow:

	Deaf	Blind
Pupils	35	15
Teachers (Korean and Japanese)	3	2
Course—Number of years	5	4

The school was started a few years ago by a group of foreign missionaries and Korean Christians. It now operates on a budget of from Yen 3,000 to 4,000 (U.S. $900 to $1,200).

The course of study is much less inclusive than that of Japan, only a few fundamentals being taught to the pupils in the single small building provided.

At the time of the visit the subject being taught in each of the four classrooms was the Japanese language, the native

language being more similar to Chinese than the language of Japan which absorbed Korea about 25 years ago.

In response to a question, the head teacher said that the main emphasis was on the compulsory language study "which is called the national language."

The proportion of financially independent deaf in Korea is estimated to be very much lower than that of Japan proper because of the limited facilities for their education, and also because of fewer opportunities for trade employment, Korea being mainly an agricultural portion of the Empire.

China

In China there are about 18 schools for the deaf, the most of which are private, having been originally started by missions. Such schools are supported to some extent by tuition fees ranging from Chinese dollars 40 to 150 (U.S. $12-45) and by supplementary contributions.

Upon being entered into such a school, a child is required to have a guarantor for his yearly tuition. Quite often the guarantor disappears or otherwise ceases to pay after a year or two, but the children are usually kept on at the schools.

The most of the schools lie within the war area in China and have ceased operations, some having been destroyed. The Government school at Nanking normally caring for 60 deaf and 20 blind pupils is included in this category. The enrollment at the others has dropped considerably because of the evacuation from cities by parents who have taken to the countrysides. Also the schools are operating on reduced budgets through the loss of tuitions and greatly reduced financial support.

The property of the two schools in Peiping was not affected as the fighting in this region was outside of the city walls, but both the enrollment and the staff have been greatly reduced for the reasons given above.

The Peiping School for the Deaf (Mr. Tu Wen Chang, principal) operates as a private school on an annual budget of Chinese $10,000 (U.S. $3,000), obtained one fourth from tuition, a like amount from the provincial (similar to state) government, and one half from contributions.

The school, established 17 years ago, normally has 100 pupils and 14 Chinese teachers and staff assistants, which numbers have been halved since the Sino-Japanese hostilities. The annual tuition is Chinese $140 (U.S. $42), and teachers earn Chinese $25-55 (U.S. $7.50-16.50) monthly.

The school is now seeking funds to buy a multiple hearing aid. Instruction is by oral methods until the child reaches 10 years of age, after which instruction depends upon the child's adaptabilities, the main emphasis being upon vocational training, consisting of various types of work with the hands.

The Peking City School for the Deaf (S. C. Chang, principal) was organized as a non-tuition day-school two years ago and is supported by the City Social Bureau to the extent of Chinese $10,000 yearly. The school possesses a multiple hearing aid which is used "primarily for the enjoyment of the children" one hour each week.

The average salary of the eight Chinese teachers is Chinese $70 (U.S. $21) monthly. Only one of the teachers has been trained to teach the deaf (in Japan), the others now being under her instruction.

Of the 36 pupils enrolled, 26 are girls, owing to the fact no tuition is charged. The traditional priority of the male child places twice as many boys as girls in tuition schools, school attendance not being compulsory by law in China.

The three private schools in Shanghai lay in the path of the recent fighting there and have suffered heavy destruction. The largest, the Chinese Institute for the Deaf, maintained in conjunction with the Chinese Institute for the Blind, was started as a private mission for the blind by John Fryer in 1926. It is now headed by Mr. George B. Fryer and is supported largely by contributions from Shanghai residents and firms.

The schools grew fast in prosperous Shanghai, but the 12 buildings are now badly wrecked and attempts are being made to raise Chinese $3,000 to repair two of the buildings so that instruction of the 80 blind and 60 deaf pupils may be resumed.

The first teacher for the institute for the deaf and the

methods of instruction were taken from the Chefoo School for the Deaf (Miss Anita Carter, principal) which was established 40 years ago by Mrs. Annetta T. Mills, an American lady, as the first school for the deaf in China.

In most of the schools in China, particularly in the older ones, signs are used to quite a large extent. In the Chefoo school and the Shanghai school referred to, signs are supplemented by the use of finger spelling with the American finger alphabet, both of romanized versions of Chinese words and of a limited English vocabulary. Only these two schools attempt to teach English in addition to Chinese.

No finger alphabet has been evolved for the Chinese, for unlike Japanese writing in which a syllabic alphabet is used, each Chinese word is written with a single character, and there is a different character for every word in the language.

In speech work, use is made of Bell's visible speech. In practice, writing is relied upon to a great extent in instruction, it being said that "the children learn very readily by this means as Chinese characters are pictographic, written for the eye while English writing is of sounds, written for the ear."

Some success in speech work has been obtained in China since its comparatively recent introduction, but speech reading for the Chinese, as well as for the Japanese, proves exceedingly difficult. Besides the multiplicity of dialects, in natural speech nearly all of the sounds are produced in the throat, very few being visible on the lips as uttered by the Oriental.

Most Japanese, with lips slightly parted in conversation, hardly appear to be talking. Many of the sounds are approximately the same as certain English sounds, plainly visible on the lips, but they are produced with "small talk" somewhat in the manner in which a ventriloquist speaks. Teachers in both Japan and China were seen to mouth words to an extent that would be forbidden in American schools.

Further, in the Chinese dialects, a single word spoken in different tones gives entirely different meanings and is written with unlike characters. The latter are in effect dif-

ferent words, although the pronunciation and romanized spellings are the same.

Thus in the Cantonese dialect of South China, many single words when run down the scale of nine tones peculiar to this dialect produce nine distinct word meanings.

In all of South China there is but one school, the School for the Deaf (Miss Li Luk Wa, principal), which was established at Kowloon City, Hongkong, three years ago. The school now has five Chinese teachers for the 27 pupils in six classes. It has an eight-year curriculum, is supported by contributions and is classified as a pure oral school.

The principal was trained at the Chefoo School and relies upon Bell's visible speech for speech work. For this purpose she has compiled a large book containing more than 300 words which are considered basic and the most useful vocabulary. For each word there are given the written Chinese character, visible speech symbols and a drawing to express the meaning.

In the two years' existence of the school, it was felt that satisfactory progress had been made in teaching these words, all in one tone. The difficulty will be met, the principal says, in attempting to teach them with other tonal values, as the 300 words become more than 2,500 words, each with a different meaning and each written with a different character, although the number of visible speech combinations for teaching purposes remains at 300.

Philippine Islands

Although small on the map in comparison with the Asiatic mainland, the Philippine Islands comprise a vast territory with a population of more than 15,000,000. Except for a very small Catholic school started last year there is, however, but one school, the School for Deaf and Blind (Miss Lucretia Belting, principal), located at Manila.

The school was organized 25 years ago by Miss Delight Rice, now doing public work in Berkeley. The school is now maintained as a Commonwealth institution.

The present principal came to the school two years ago following 15 years' service in educational and other public

work in the Philippines. The staff includes two other American teachers and 13 Filipinos, one of whom is blind, none being deaf. Some of these teachers work both with the deaf and the blind.

All of the functions of the school are located in one large building for the 123 deaf and 20 blind pupils who are sent to the school when discovered by missionaries, teachers, nurses and others to whom the school is known.

The majority of the pupils come from Luzon, the largest island and situs of Manila. Plans are being made for a field officer as it is felt that large numbers of deaf and blind children in the outlying islands have not reached the school.

The means of instruction for the deaf became entirely oral five years ago. Use is made of the North Carolina course of study, Yale charts, the Fitzgerald key and many American textbooks. Quite a bit of adaptation to local needs is necessary in the use of the latter.

All instruction is in English, as it is in all public schools. President Quezon recently proclaimed Tagalog, the chief dialect, as the national language, but Spanish and English remain the official languages in the Islands as yet.

In trades, the greatest emphasis is on gardening which is carried on at the school, but quite a few of the deaf boys are sent to the local school of arts and trades for woodworking, mechanical drawing and art, and to the printing office of the Bureau of Education to learn printing.

The annual budget provides Pesos 16,000 (U.S. $8,000) for maintenance and nearly double this amount for salaries. Because of climatic conditions the summer vacation starts in April, and as the visit was paid to the school a few days after its closing, the above information was obtained in conversation with the principal.

Problems of Deafness

By ETHEL B. WARFIELD
Field Agent for the New Jersey School, West Trenton, New Jersey

DR. RUDOLF PINTNER, in his article Ever-Widening Fields of Research in the ANNALS for last May, says: "There is room for many more studies before we arrive at a more complete understanding of the personality of the deaf child. And as we do we shall gain insight into the peculiar problems his deafness presents and in this way be able to help him adjust more adequately to his environment."

"Peculiar problems his deafness presents." These are arresting words, words which stir the heart and mind of one who for many years has mulled over the problem of how we can do a better job in schools for the deaf, give more adequate preparation for life in this ever-changing civilization.

We realize that some of our graduates and also some of our so-called failures leave us, secure employment, marry, rear fine families, are absorbed in the life of their community in much the same process as that of their hearing brothers and sisters. We keep these adjusted people too often in mind, it is to be feared, in planning our programs, academic, vocational and leisure time. Dr. Pintner's article makes us stop and face conditions that we know exist, and that do cause us concern particularly when we follow up our former pupils.

Let us think over the handicap of deafness. Do our young teachers come into our schools realizing the need to keep constantly in mind what it is to be deaf? Do they try to understand why their pupils behave as they do? In our training courses we endeavor to have them comprehend the difficulty of learning a language for one congenitally deaf. We say so glibly to visitors, "These children before you are like other groups of their age except for the lack of hearing, which accounts for their having no speech. They had neither speech nor language when they came to us, they didn't know their names, they didn't know that things had names. It is a slow difficult process to teach them to talk, much more diffi-

cult to give them something to say." We are concerned, and rightly so, with better techniques of speech and language teaching, with the fact that more than teaching the child to say what we think he should say is the problem of giving him the ability to express in some way or many ways what *he wishes* to say.

We have, happily for our pupils, seen the possibilities of giving the child reading far ahead of his ability to speak or write. We have gone ahead in the use of group hearing aids to open up another path to make a richer fuller life. All of these elements loom large in our training schools and in our curricula. Have we been so concerned with these essentials that in our daily contacts with problems of adjustment in class or household we have lost some of our real understanding of the deaf child's handicap? Have we used up our energy, our enthusiasm for our work in our effort to master new methods, to make subject matter alive, to keep up with the best in modern theory and practice, that we haven't taken time out to ponder over what is really going on in the minds of our children? Why are some adjusting, others always in difficulty, some getting along well with the teachers and very troublesome in the household, others a constant irritation in the classroom and fairly happy in other departments of school life? So often we hear teachers make the statement that since deaf children are going out into a "hearing" world we shouldn't make so much difference in our approach in the classroom or household. This is not a discussion of classroom methods or procedures but a brief summing up in an effort to bring back some understanding of the child and his adjustment to his environment in school, home, and in society. Let us make some comparisons.

We have been in many homes where there are deaf children, many kinds of homes. Obviously, there is no need to describe the types visited in a cross section of any residential school for the deaf. Happily with few exceptions all of them had one thing in common, a real concern that the children in each home "grew up properly." Needless to say another outstanding common factor was the great love for the deaf member and the desire that he, too, "turn out all

right." In all types of homes this idea, this yearning, has been expressed in various ways, crude or refined. Most parents, some wiser than others, seem to be striving to rear their children in the way they should go. Over and over do they admonish the children, perhaps too much so, to do this or that, not to do this, that way is unkind or selfish, nice people do this or refrain from doing that, certain decencies are observed by those who wish to be considered well bred or refined. This advice, these suggestions, these reminders and checks are often crudely expressed and many times, as we all know, the seed falls on stony ground. But what of the deaf child cut off from all this? We realize how much of our adjustment depends not alone on what we do or say but on the manner of *doing* and *saying,* the inflection in our voices, the difference in meaning we are able to express because of a wider vocabulary than our deaf children use. We try to give our pupils this training or in a measure supply this lack. We have them share their boxes, we constantly teach them polite phrases, we earnestly try to have them conform to accepted standards, but is this training as effective or does it mean quite the same as the family repetition or real situation?

What does it mean never to hear the cost of food, clothing, shelter? To most of us, we know, this would be Utopia. Consider the deaf member of a family cut off from much of this discussion, or only dimly understanding it. A deaf boy in his early teens demanded a new suit for Easter only to be told that he couldn't have one, he would have to have his older brother's cut down. He asked his mother what she did with all her money and she patiently wrote down an itemized account of what the food, rent and clothes cost for a month. The boy considered the list for a long time, then made his mother understand that she spent too much for rent. The deaf boy agreed to wear the old suit but said, "A new one next year, sure."

It is unfortunate, often tragic, that children hear the economic struggles of the family discussed freely, but is it a good thing that our deaf children have only a theoretical knowledge of what it costs to live? Ask the child what a

doctor charges for one visit, what glasses cost, what the dentist charges for one filling. The answers might surprise us. A class of deaf children was on a sight-seeing trip and, even as you and I, they were interested in getting good meals en route. They wanted, they said, a good dinner, and time was spent talking over the anticipated meal. The teacher asked them how much they wanted to spend and they decided that 35¢ would be sufficient! How often do deaf children go to the market or store and actually buy the family dinner? We try to take care of this in our home economics classes. We are making a real effort to supply this lack, but lessons can't take the place of real experiences. Buying the food or doing without some extra that is wanted because the purse is flat and hearing all the whys and wherefores discussed is a different matter. The underprivileged groups among our pupils do experience poverty in their vacations at home but what is their real comprehension of the situation? What is going on in their minds?

We know that from crowded homes where poverty exists come well-adjusted people. In many of the homes of deaf children we have visited conditions prevail that are far from desirable, seem almost unbearable, but the fundamental factors essential to a well-adjusted life are present. There is a sense of belonging to the group, of being an important member of the family, an atmosphere of normal living. Many of the parents are understanding and sensible in their attitude. In other homes confusion and insecurity prevail. Think of the deaf child in such a home. While at school he may be fortunate in being spared hearing some of the bitter wrangling and strife but if he is of normal or high intelligence he comprehends—and what goes on in his mind? Has he the opportunity and ability to talk it over with someone, can he find release or escape at times as we do when life becomes difficult? Do the teachers and household know what thoughts, emotions are troubling him? Do we make an effort to get over to him that he can make a life for himself better than the life he has known? We do strive to educate him so he can climb out of such an environment. Sometimes children come to us poorly clothed and unattractive, and we are

amazed at their transformation in a short period, but there are deeper problems to be solved.

What of the adult personalities that our children daily contact? How often must they be taught and cared for by *new* people who are inexperienced in their jobs and who have a meager inadequate means of communication with those under them? This is true of the means of communication whether it be oral or manual. The pupil may be a poor lip-reader or have poor speech, and consequently, gets into hot water because he hasn't understood, but what of the poor sign maker or finger speller who doesn't know whether the idea has been clearly "put over"?

The adjustment in the world of industry concerns us all and the placement of the deaf is a matter in which we are deeply concerned. To do a better piece of work we are evaluating our prevocational and vocational courses, tying up the academic work with the shops where we find it possible and checking on the conditions our people are facing outside. Compare the deaf boy going out for a job with his hearing brother. What has he heard of the struggle to find work, the people in the family or circle of friends unemployed, the large number of high school and college people unable to find jobs and willing to take anything, the prevailing wage scales, and last but not least, the *ups* and *downs* of any jobs? What happens in the average family? How often do the various members come home from the day's work and over the dinner table recount the doings in the office or shop, the grievances, fancied or real, with the boss! Next morning the injured member, however, is up and off to work knowing well that jobs are hard to get and his experience common to everyone.

A few years ago in the survey of the deaf and hard of hearing in industry a number of employers reported that their deaf people fitted in as well as their hearing employees, and seemed surprised that we asked the question. We know deaf people who have held good positions for years. They left school, secured work with no help from us, and perhaps made a change or two until they found their niche and have lived as you and I. Think also of some of our young people

who don't seem able to become adjusted. We know the difficulties that confront parents of hearing children. The same problems arise but again we need to keep in mind what deafness does to our pupils.

In many of our schools we have a large number of pupils of high school age. We recall at a meeting some years ago two papers that were presented, the first on a course of study for young children and the second on the curriculum in an experimental high school, and the feeling of disappointment that came to us when in the discussion that followed much time was given to the first paper and the second dismissed with brief comment because the chairman said, "We don't do work on the high school level in many of our schools." There seemed no appreciation of the philosophy upon which this unusual high school program was based, no understanding of the effort to meet the pupil's needs, academic, physical and social. Contrast the same age group at home. They are problems to their parents and the same "teen" age problems exist with us. Do we keep these likenesses as well as differences in mind?

At a recent meeting of the N.E.A., in a panel discussion on Juvenile Delinquency, the president of the board of education of one of our large cities said the one thing he desired most was to be able to go into the senior high schools of the city and say to the teachers, "Relax," that they might better understand their pupils.

The president of the Progressive Education Association spoke at a conference not long ago of the conditions he had observed in his travels since he had taken office and of the changes he would like to see brought about. In the discussion that followed one speaker agreed that these changes were desirable but reminded the speaker that they cost money. He replied that he was pleading for a new point of view that would cost nothing. We plead here for not altogether a new point of view in the education of the deaf, but for a pause to think over the handicap of deafness.

Prevention of Diseases and Disorders of the Ears Between the Ages of Three and Twelve Years (Inclusive)[1]

By EDMUND PRINCE FOWLER, M.D.
Consulting Otologist, Manhattan Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Hospital, New York City

LIFE may be divided into three major physical epochs: Youth, middle age and old age. Although there are many variations, on the average each of these epochs may be subdivided into three periods as follows:

Youth	Early	1 – 2 yrs., inclusive	Infancy
	Middle	3 – 12 yrs., inclusive	Childhood
	Late	13 – 20 yrs., inclusive	Adolescence
Middle Age	Early	21 – 30 yrs., inclusive	
	Middle	31 – 40 yrs., inclusive	Prime of life
	Late	41 – 50 yrs., inclusive	
Old Age	Early	51 – 60 yrs., inclusive	
	Middle	61 – 70 yrs., inclusive	Declining years
	Late	71 –	

In each of these physical epochs there are variations of the incidence and prognosis of disease in general and particularly of certain diseases prone to involve the mechanism of the ear.

The years between three and twelve inclusive are the years of childhood, when because of the ability to wander from the protective precincts of the mother or nursery and immediate home surroundings, the child is exposed to more and greater traumas and to more and greater infections than those usually experienced before the age of three. These are the years of greatest exposure to cold, drafts and the infectious diseases.

The years between three and twelve are the years of greatest growth and greatest adjustment to environmental physical and social contacts; when ideology, kindliness and gentleness, natural or acquired, are constantly outraged by the ever-present acquisitiveness, cruelty, brutality, spite and pure cussedness, seemingly inherent in or readily acquired

[1] Reprinted, with permission, from *Preventive Medicine,* June 1938.

by many human beings; when any desire to be fair and kind is tempered by the necessity for retaining self respect by self defense and offense. These are the years when even the lesser degrees of deafness subject the child to the emotional strain of undeserved scoldings, insults, misunderstandings, crude jokes and ridicule, all because the child hears only part of what is said, picking up partial phrases and faulty articulation.

Deficient hearing year by year engenders an increasing increment of retardation, not because of lagging mentality but because of lagging education and lagging adjustments to life. No one may know what is wrong. The child in question may not sense the truth. Without special aids the child is unable to acquire knowledge in anywhere near the average time. Depending upon the degree and type of deafness such aids are medical supervision and treatment, front seat in classes, instruction in lip-reading, speech training, mechanical or electrical hearing aids, special classes and special schools for the hard of hearing.

It is commonly thought that ear disease with lowered hearing does not become chronic during the early years of life, and that if the ear is left alone, it will take care of itself. It is commonly thought that without a history of suppurative otitis the deafness is probably congenital and that nothing can be done about it. These beliefs are far from the truth, because although the tissues are inherently more responsive to treatment and tend to throw off certain infections and to heal more readily during the years of childhood, repeated inflammatory insults, often unrecognized, may lower resistance, establish hypersensitivity and set up potential or actual ear disease and progressive deafness. Careful clinical and autopsy findings show that no child escapes some inflammation in the middle ear and adnexa.

On the other hand, even though theoretically possible, it would be unwise to so restrict the activity of children that they lived only in a sterile environment. Overprotection unfits an individual for a happy life in the real world and to resist successfully the waves of infection which daily threaten with inundation the protecting walls of body resistance.

Most of the observations set forth two years ago in *The Health Examiner* (1) are especially applicable to childhood, and could therefore be repeated at this time, but other considerations lead me to believe that it would be superfluous to do this, except in part.

Regular and adequate hours for sleep, study, outdoor play and the avoidance of crowds are good general preventive measures. Exposure to cold or drafts, especially when overheated, diving and swimming under water are dangerous if there is any tendency to nose or ear infections. The logical and careful parent will properly clothe and adequately shelter and feed the child and at the first sign or symptom of potential or actual ear trouble take preventive action. Fads and excesses in these matters should be avoided. A competent physician is the best guide as to the advisability of action and the choice of method.

It is now possible to protect children from several of the most dangerous infectious and contagious diseases by properly timed immunizations. This subject and the application of preventive medicine to the unborn child, and to the baby, will be discussed extensively by other contributors to this journal. I wish to point out in connection with immunization, that it is not an unmixed boon to humanity if it begets forgetfulness of past experiences or sets up an artificial immunity which does not protect as well as the natural immunity acquired through various and repeated self-controlled infections. Immunization confers a relative, never an absolute protection. Moreover, there is no surety of immunity from ear disease and deafness even though all the diseases of childhood are avoided.

In every individual up to a critical point which varies with the type, number and virulence of the invading organism and the type, speed, endurance and adequacy of the resistance of the host, no deafness results. Beyond a critical point, permanent deafness is certain. Hearing is conserved and restored directly as the speed of limitation and resolution of the inflammation.

Too often parents and physicians allow the child to drift, hoping that "nature" will eventually cure the ear trouble.

Nature will usually do so if given a reasonable chance. Nature will seldom cure the disease or preserve the hearing if she is denied a reasonable chance. Procrastination definitely and often permanently lessens or denies a reasonable chance. Physicians are prone to treat diseases of the ear and of other organs, without giving adequate thought to the hearing and to delay proper operative measures so long that irreparable damage occurs. Ill advised and badly timed surgery is also a major menace. The time element in prevention and in curative treatment is most important. Chronicity and recurrence will cause some deafness whether or not the otitis be ultimately conquered.

It should be kept in mind that before, during and after any disease, all treatment (medical and surgical) is really preventive, and in the great majority of cases efficacious in conserving function; but in this short article I cannot discuss at length the surgical treatment of diseases of the ear.

Potential or actual ear trouble in youth is usually preceded by and prolonged by infections of the respiratory tracts, particularly those in the nose and nasopharynx coincidental with diseased tonsils and adenoids. The exanthemata, especially scarlatina and measles, also diphtheria, mumps, whooping cough, influenza and pneumonia take a heavy toll in diseased and deafened ears. Meningitis is far more deadly to the hearing than to life, and the deafness is final. There is no known way to restore the hearing. Syphilis may cause deafness in various ways, but early proper treatment will usually conserve the hearing. A positive Wassermann does not necessarily indicate that the ear disease is syphilitic in origin. In childhood idiosyncrasy and excessive exposure to certain drugs and poisons, particularly quinine, the arsenicals and the salicylates may cause deafness from hemorrhage and from degeneration of the neural mechanism of hearing in the inner ear.

Dietary disorders, diabetes and acidosis are particularly dangerous in the presence of infection. They may be contributory factors in deafness but there is no convincing evidence as to their being primary factors. The same may be said for anemia, rickets, tuberculosis, cancerous growths

and many other diseases when not involving the tissues in or near the ear. Chronic otitis like chronic sinusitis or other chronic infections impairs the ability to utilize carbohydrates and in this and in other ways may cause or aggravate some diseases.

In the adult there appears to be a slow progressive loss of hearing with increasing age (and cardio-vascular disorders), often independent of inflammatory episodes in the ears, but in youth there is no such gradual loss of hearing without some inflammatory or non-inflammatory progressive lesion in the ears, and therefore the detection of even a slight drop or a slight progressive loss in hearing acuity is a warning signal not to be ignored.

The degree of deafness may or may not correspond with the virulence of the primary bodily disease or with the virulence of the ear infection. Even mild diseases of childhood, often undetectable and indistinguishable from one another, may prepare the ground for severe deafness, and it is therefore imperative that the ear and adnexa be carefully and constantly watched during and following the diseases of childhood.

The factors entering into causation and prevention are too many and too variable to permit of a simple or universal means for their sure control, but early detection and an accurate diagnosis are the most practical and effective preludes to preventive treatment. Serial Roentgenograms and blood chemistries expertly interpreted, are frequently valuable aids in diagnosis.

The little child often fails to reveal slight symptoms, and severe illness may mask very severe ear conditions, even total deafness in one ear. Moreover, parents and nurses are generally near the sick bed, and consequently their voices are better heard and their gestures and facial expressions more readily seen by the child than when the latter is up and around and farther from the speakers. Neither the parents nor the child may notice the loss in hearing.

The following are some of the more readily detectable signs and symptoms accompanying ear conditions. Any or

all may occur without ear disease and many without any disease.

1. Deafness, dullness, heaviness or blocking sensations in the ears persisting for more than a few minutes, especially after exposure to cold, swimming, head colds, chronic or recurrent sinusitis, fatigue, shock or other causes of lowered resistance; also after trauma and severe or prolonged acoustic shocks.
2. Hearing better than others in a noisy place.
3. Asking for the repetition of words or phrases (seeming stupidity in understanding or inattention to conversation).
4. Failure to respond when called or to properly locate the source of a sound and in consequence going in the wrong direction when responding to a call.
5. Retardation in school. Repetition of grades (this is on the average directly proportional to the hearing loss).
6. Distortion of speech out of proportion to age. This may be due to word deafness, congenital or acquired from other than ear disease.
7. Backwardness in learning to talk. Failure to acquire a considerable vocabulary by three years of age indicates that a careful examination should be made to determine what is wrong.
8. Buzzing in the ears (tinnitus), dizziness. These symptoms may also be caused primarily by head colds, sinus disease, wax or foreign bodies in external meatus, otosclerosis, anemia and certain circulatory, neurologic and gastro-intestinal conditions.
   Jumping of the eyeballs (nystagmus) particularly if associated with vertigo.
9. Headache, fever, sweats, chills, acidosis, nausea, vomiting, coma, otherwise unexplained.
10. Tenderness, itching, heat, or pain, deformities or swellings in or about the ear.
11. Moisture or discharge, running or odor from the external ear canal.

12. Facial spasm or facial paralysis.
13. Allergic and neurological symptoms correlated to any of the above.

Children on the average possess 10 db.[2] better hearing for the speech frequencies than the adult. This means that they can hear nearly twice as far as the adult and that the standard taken in surveys to indicate defective hearing (9 db.) is really low. It is, however, considered unwise under the usual noisy and often otherwise disturbing conditions of testing to set a higher standard.

A child may show little or no loss of hearing for speech in the presence of extensive ear disease, and even with severe deafness for sounds above or below the speech frequencies. The 4A audiometer tests should therefore be considered only a rough screening device to separate the obviously imperfect from the obviously better hearing pupils. A careful family history of past and present ear trouble, head colds, and deafness (if acted upon) may be of more value than the hearing tests from a preventive standpoint, because ear conditions like all conditions depending in whole or in part on inheritance and environment, are largely family affairs. There is a family history of ear conditions in one out of three children with ear disease. There is sometimes a considerable reluctance to contribute this evidence.

If all little children were examined otologically on entering nursery school (not later than three years of age), many ear conditions would be detected in time for preventive treatment to greatly diminish the incidence and severity of deafness in later life. Nursery schools for the deaf and for the hard of hearing should be established as part of the educational system of every community. One of the most important activities of the American Society for the Hard of Hearing and its nation-wide membership is the furtherance of legislation to establish nursery schools for little children wherein they may be taught proper language and be educated in their own age groups and in the presence of

[2] I use the decibel loss in preference to percentage loss, because there is really no way of accurately measuring percentage loss of hearing.

the normal hearing child. It must be ever remembered that these children must live their lives in a hearing world.

Detection is largely a matter of educating parents, teachers, and physicians. It is also largely a matter of obtaining sufficient funds to put a comprehensive program into operation on a large scale. In the state of New York, a Commission appointed by Governor Lehman is now considering ways and means to initiate a scientific program for the prevention of deafness and the educational and medical management of the deaf and hard-of-hearing school child. This in itself is significant and encouraging.

Since 1934 in New York City's schools 1,200,000 children between the ages of six and fifteen were twice tested by the 4A group audiometer (W.P.A. Project 6065).[3] Of these, 105,623 showed a loss of hearing for speech of 9 db. or more. With few exceptions subsequent tests and retests substantiated the original 4A findings. Of these 38,000 received one or more 2A audiometer tests and (with the exception of about 3,000 who failed to report) an otological examination.

An analysis of 2,709 children, all of whom received at least two otological examinations (at intervals of six months to two years) by a project otologist, showed at the first examination (in one or both cases):

1,307 Non-suppurative otitis media, chronic or recurrent

6 and 7 yrs.	24
8 and 9 yrs.	300
10 and 11 yrs.	555
12 and over	428

1,451 Suppurative otitis media, healed, recurrent, residual or adhesive, or with evidence of suppuration in the past (past masked)

6 and 7 yrs.	36
8 and 9 yrs.	369
10 and 11 yrs.	597
12 and over	449

336 Suppurative otitis media, chronic (ears discharging at the time of examination)

6 and 7 yrs.	11
8 and 9 yrs.	61
10 and 11 yrs.	139
12 and over	125

[3] For the Report on W.P.A. Project 6065 see ANNALS, May, 1937 (vol. 82, no. 3), pp. 234-243.

196 Nerve deafness, with or without accompanying otitis media	
6 and 7 yrs.	2
8 and 9 yrs.	33
10 and 11 yrs.	82
12 and over	79
3,290—total number of diagnoses	3,290

The discrepancy in the total of diagnoses (3,290) and the number of cases (2,709) examined is due to the 581 with a differing diagnosis in the two ears, or a nerve deafness accompanied or preceded by a suppurative otitis media in the same ear.

The great majority of these children had some nose and throat condition, usually hypertrophied tonsils, adenoids, turbinates, with blocked noses, recurrent bronchitis or sinusitis.

At the second examination there was not only a shift of all diagnostic groups into the older ages but a shift toward the less active otitis groups. There was less chronic suppurative otitis media. A marked shifting of individuals was noted, more into than out of the deafened category, *i.e.*, those showing over 9 db. losses.

The hearing losses and the number of diseased ears increased with age group and with little change in history or type of disease. This tends to substantiate our personal statistics concerning progressive deafness in youth from suppurative otitis media (2).

The figures do not indicate that the otitis began at the ages examined. If the children had been examined at an earlier age, almost all would have shown similar ear conditions.

A large number (73,730) of the non-deafened children (those showing less than a 9 db. loss with the 4A audiometer) gave histories of past ear disease, and usually histories of frequent colds in the head or throat. Many of these children will later show definite ear disease and deafness. A large number (35%) of the deafened children showed definite ear pathology but gave no past history of ear disease. These statistics alone show the importance of periodic testing and otological examination for school children. There

is no other practical way to uncover these cases.

Our records of the 2,709 cases examined show that 1,537 visits for examination and treatment were made to clinics and 943 to private physicians.

One frequently hears, as an excuse for inaction and the do-nothing policy, that it is impossible to test the little child accurately. One might just as well say that because it is impossible to test accurately the sight, muscular movement, or the amount of pain suffered by the little child, that nothing should be done for the blind, the paralyzed and those in pain. One can test the hearing of the little child (even the baby) if individual attention and proper procedure are used.

Before the age of six, it is sometimes difficult to obtain exact quantitative measurements of the hearing, but the simple tests suggested by the author in this article (and in *The Health Examiner* in 1935 and elsewhere) will elicit sufficient information to determine whether or not the child detects the sounds used. If there is no response to these sounds the child is definitely deaf or otherwise abnormal. Total deafness is not difficult to detect.

The attentive normal hearing child should easily hear and understand a residual whisper at twenty feet in a large quiet room. Use only words and phrases the child knows, and train the child to repeat them after you, or if this does not succeed, condition the child to respond in other ways to certain loud sounds such as those from a bell, clapping the hands, shouting the child's name, or the name of something the child is fond of or accustomed to mimic, such as Ma Ma, Mummy, Da Da, bow wow, pussy, bottle, day day, etc., etc. Then attempt to obtain the responses at greater and greater distances, and when the same sounds are repeated while the child is out of sight or in another room, observed by someone who makes no motion or gives no cue as to what response is expected. It is usually difficult for untrained persons to test a little child who can see the motions of the tester, or the emotions or expressions of others hearing the tests. A great obstacle in detecting deafness in little children is a parent's aversion to admitting the defect.

The deafness is usually suspected, but acknowledgment is delayed. Everyone is so anxious to find some hearing present that one's attitudes and reactions may be sensed by and vicariously responded to by the child. Do not prolong the tests more than a few minutes. Little children tire easily, and it is therefore difficult to hold their attention over long periods of time.

It is convenient to designate the degrees of deafness as follows (equally applicable to individual frequencies or the frequencies most used for speech, 300 to 4,000):

DEGREES OF DEAFNESS

Loss in Decibels	*Degree of Loss*	*Loss of Hearing for Speech at 5 feet*
I. Not more than 20 db.	Slight	Usually not noticeable but faint whispers often not understood. Hearing aids not used.*
II. Over 20 db. and not more than 40 db.	Moderate	Soft or poor articulation often not understood. Lip-reading indicated. Hearing aids often unnecessary.*
III. Over 40 db. and not more than 60 db.	Moderately marked Moderately severe	Moderately loud articulation often not understood. Lip-reading and hearing aids indicated.
IV. Over 60 db. and not more than 80 db.	Marked (or severe) (very hard of hearing)	Even loud articulation often not understood. Lip-reading and hearing aids indicated.
V. Over 80 db.	Very marked Very severe (very deaf)	Very loud or shouted words often not understood. Lip-reading invaluable. Hearing aids often of little benefit.
VI. No hearing	Total deafness	Very loud shout not heard.

*I and II apply more particularly of obstructive deafness. Nerve deafness of less than 40 db. causes little inconvenience at conversational distances.

Losses of less than 10 db. may be considered low normal.

Roughly speaking, if the voice or whisper is heard twice as far by one child as by another it means that the latter

(deafened) child shows a loss of about 10 db. as compared to the former. (If three times as far, it means a loss of between 15 and 20 db.) Nine db. is the standard set up for screening out deafened school children, and 10 db. is therefore a significant loss under the conditions, because outside noise will not interfere with (or mask) the ear of the deafened child so much as it will the ear of a normally hearing child used as a control. The deafened ear shuts out the outside noise. The deafened child is therefore always in a more quiet place than the normal hearing child.

In many homes the conversational voice is regularly so loud (50 to 60 db. above normal minimum audibility) that a child with even marked degrees of deafness may hear much of what is said. In small apartments there may be little difficulty in inter-room loud conversation between people with moderately severe deafness.

It is also to be pointed out that when the deafness is due to certain lesions of the nerve apparatus of hearing, voices 50 or 60 db. or more above normal thresholds may often appear quite as loud as to the normal hearing ear. This observation has been substantiated by clinical and animal research (3, 4, 5, 6).

Minimum audible sounds may not reveal the true type or degree of the deafness, but by the added use of louder sounds one may be able to determine both of these. All hearing tests should include in addition to threshold determinations, tests for sounds louder than threshold (4). It is the louder sounds to which the ear is accustomed to listen for the understanding of speech. It has been demonstrated that these tests are of great value for diagnostic purposes.

Otosclerosis

The stage is set for otosclerosis during youth, although the deafness it causes is seldom recognized until long after puberty. Then as the weeks, months, and years go by, the deafness constantly or intermittently increases as the otosclerotic growth enlarges. When the ligament around the stapes becomes involved in the bony growth, the stapes is bound to the promontory and sounds are impeded in their

route to the inner ear. It does not always do this, as is shown by the fact that about one half of the cases diagnosed as otosclerosis at autopsy show no history of deafness. Although the ear develops along predestined lines, its bony capsule is modified not only by genes, and cells within its meshes, but by the quality and quantity of some of the hormones and vitamins and their effects on digestion and general calcium metabolism. Any organ in the body may influence any other organ. It does not always follow that a history of progressive deafness from otosclerosis in a parent (or in near relatives) means a like uncontrolled differentiation in the bone of the ear or a deafness in any of the offspring.

To be successful treatment must be instituted in youth, during the early stages, and before ankylosis and permanent impairment of hearing occurs. There can be no other way to prevent progressive or severe deafness from otosclerosis.

For several years experimental operations on animals and humans have demonstrated that it is possible to improve the hearing even in severe otosclerosis by making an opening through the bony capsule of the labyrinth into the inner ear, but it is as yet impossible to predict whether or not the opening will remain open. It usually closes, the hearing goes down, and when it does the deafness may be worse than before. The risk of this operation is not warranted except in selected cases, and if there is no nerve deafness for the speech tones. It is not a cure for otosclerosis, but it is hoped that some day ways may be discovered for its safe and more successful employment.

I have dwelt more upon the detection of deafness than upon other phases of prevention, because upon a large scale more children will be protected from deafness by early detection, followed by treatment of the cause of the deafness, than in any other way. With the exception of general hygiene, treatment without some indication or threat of ear disease is generally not to be expected. In children the most usual and compelling indications for preventive treatment are earache, and the realization that there is an actual or potential deafness.

Delay in making an early quantitative diagnosis is in most instances the chief cause of permanent deafness.

REFERENCES

Fowler, E. P.

1. Ear Conditions from the Preventive Standpoint, *The Health Examiner,* Oct., 1935.
2. The Prognosis of Moderate Deafness in Youth. Variations with Disease, Management and Treatment. *N.Y. State Jour. of Medicine,* May, 1936.
3. A Method for the Early Detection of Otosclerosis (A Study of Sounds Well above Threshold), *Archives of Otolaryngology,* 24: 737, Dec., 1936.
4. Presidential Address: The Diagnosis of Diseases of the Neural Mechanism of Hearing by the Aid of Sounds Well above Threshold, *Trans. Amer. Otol. Soc.,* 1937, *Laryngoscope* 47: 289-300, 1937.
5. Measuring the Sensation of Loudness, A New Approach, etc., *Archives of Otolaryngology,* 26: 514, Nov., 1937.
6. Limited Lesions of the Basilar Membrane, *Archives of Otolaryngology,* 8: 151, 1928.

The Moscow Theater of the Deaf

By MAX POLYANOVSKY
Moscow, U.S.S.R.

THERE is hardly one of the three thousand deaf persons residing in Moscow who has not visited the Moscow Theater of the Deaf located on Dzerzhinsky street.

This theater of pantomime has a history of its own.

In 1919, the deaf motion picture actor, Milikan Kazazyants, formed a small dramatic circle in the club for the deaf organized by the Soviet Government in Moscow. The actor was an ardent admirer of the late Max Linder, the French comedy and motion-picture star. For the first performance to be staged by the group he wrote a comedy, "The Living Museum," where he took the comic rôle of "personification of Max."

Deprived of hearing and speech, the audience understood the actors excellently and was deeply interested in every new performance of the club.

The club occupied at the time a three-room apartment where it was damp and cold. In 1919, during the Civil War, there was a shortage of bread and fuel in Moscow and the club was not being heated. As the actors conversed with the help of gestures, during long monologues their fingers froze and their hands became stiff with cold.

In the fifth year of its existence the club received new quarters on Dzerzhinsky street. Here the dramatic group was given for its theatrical work an auditorium with a capacity to accommodate 300 people. The theater's repertoire became more serious. The deaf actors revived the works of Pushkin, Gogol, Ostrovsky, Chekhov, Schiller and O'Neill. The theater presented with great success, during the last three years, Schiller's "Love and Intrigue," Gogol's "Marriage," "O'Neill's "All God's Chillun Got Wings" and many other plays in addition to evenings devoted to Chekhov's humorous works.

The centenary of Pushkin's death was commemorated by the theater of the deaf with presentations of Pushkin's

"Mermaid" and excerpts from "Boris Godunov." "Eugene Onegin" was also shown, but of course not in the form of an opera, but as a libretto staged with the assistance of "conversation" pantomime.

For the twentieth anniversary of the October Revolution this theater prepared for production Korneichuk's "Platon Krechet." The writer recalls one of the rehearsals he attended. In the large room where the rehearsal was in progress one heard only the scraping of feet and the movement of chairs. Words were not heard. But upon close study of the actors one immediately beheld the images of the familiar play.

The régisseur, or managing director, Vassili Zvorykin, who has worked in the theater for ten years is trying very hard to bring it to the same level with the best theaters of the capital. He is a person of splendid tastes and very self-exacting. He is by profession a graphic artist. Deaf from birth, Zvorykin, overcoming all obstacles encountered by "semi-useless" people in tsarist Russia, received an education in the Stroganov Art School. He was graduated two years before the Revolution took place. A wide road opened before him after the Great Revolution and Zvorykin is now energetically working in the theater and in the IZOGIS (State Publishing House of Fine Arts). He stages plays, performs in them, makes stage designs, always keeping in touch with the work of the Moscow theaters.

Another devoted worker of the theater for the deaf is Evgenya Minasova, art director and actress. In addition to working in the theater, Minasova teaches in the school for the deaf in the Kuibyshev Electric Combinat.

Minasova's first steps in the preparation of any performance is to make a number of deletions from the play. She deletes words which would be difficult to convey manually. In order to avoid superfluous finger motion which would tire the audience, she is compelled to abridge somewhat the plays adopted for staging.

Minasova is well acquainted with the theater. The daughter of a dramatic actress, she was attracted to the stage from very childhood. She knows how to find new cadres of

talented youth in the enterprises of the capital where the deaf are employed. The theater troupe has such fine workers as the fitter and brigade leader Nikitin from the electric plant, the lathe turners Mitkin and Shershakov (the former from the auto plant), Nina Knyazeva, a worker from the porcelain factory, and others.

"When we finish our work on 'Platon Krechet,' we shall undertake the staging of Maxim Gorky's 'The Zykov Family,'" Evgenya Minasova informed us.

She showed me the manuscript of her article on the theater, written by her in honor of the twentieth anniversary of the Great Socialist Revolution for the journal entitled "The Life of the Deaf." We read the following lines in the article:

" . . . Gradually, year after year, our theater learned to use a variety of colors, learned to portray images of living people. Gradually we mastered the methods of socialist realism."

This theater was created by the revolution in a country where there are not and cannot be "semi-useless" people. The Soviet Government is trying to give these people that which nature has denied them.

The Moscow Theater of the Deaf, as any other theater, has repeatedly made tours through the Soviet Union. During the last three years this theater has visited Leningrad, Minsk, Smolensk and traveled all over the Urals where the deaf of that district for the first time beheld genuine theater art.

A and *The*

By Alan Y. Crouter
Instructor in the Pennsylvania School,
Mount Airy, Pennsylvania

The definite and indefinite articles have long been a perplexing problem to teachers of the deaf. In the hope it may be of assistance to both teachers and pupils the following method is presented.

The use of *a* and *the* does not depend upon number or priority. The underlying principle is, *"If the object of the article is known to all, the definite article is used. If the object of the article is not known to all, the indefinite article is used."*

This principle must be put into a form which is easy for deaf children to understand. Here is the form:

[1.]
I know
and
You know
} the

[2.]
I do not know
and
You do not know
} a

[3.]
I do not know
and
You know
} a

[4.]
I know
and
You do not know
} a

The definite article should be taught first since it is more advisable to work from the known to the unknown. The following is a good way to introduce it.

T: "Joe, show me the clock."
P: Shows the teacher the clock and writes on a slate, "I showed Miss Doe the clock."
T: "Mary, show me the calendar."
P: Acts and writes, "I showed Miss Doe the calendar."
T: "Bill, show me the pointer."
P: Acts and writes, "I showed Miss Doe the pointer." *etc., etc.*

A sufficient number of statements should be written to allow adequate emphasis of the use of the definite article.

The teacher then calls attention to the use of the definite article, underlining *the* in each statement.

T: "Why did Joe write, 'the clock'?"

"Why did Mary write, 'the calendar'?"

"Why did Bill write, 'the pointer'?" *etc.*

(Let pupils think about it to motivate interest.)

T: "I will tell you."

Teacher then writes rule one.

I know
and
You know } the

T: "I know and you know.—I shall write *the*."

"Joe knew about the clock and we knew about the clock. He wrote *the*."

"Mary knew about the calendar and we knew about the calendar. She wrote *the*."

"Bill knew about the pointer and we knew about the pointer. He wrote *the*." *etc.*

When the pupils understand thoroughly just that idea, they understand the basic principle.

Right here the children should be given to understand that the "you" in the rule can mean one person or many persons.

In planning the introduction of the article, the teacher must be careful to avoid confusion. *If there is more than one window in the room, she cannot say, "Show me the window," because that is contrary to the principle and the rule being taught. For the same reason an object cannot be used in the lesson on rule one if more than one of that kind of object is visible.*

If more work is needed, various objects can be placed on a table and shown to the children so that everybody in the room "knows about them." Then the work should be carried on as outlined previously.

The next step is to introduce *a*, and the reason for its use, *viz:*

Teacher shows *several* pencils to the class and puts them in plain view.

T: "Mary, give me a pencil." (Mary is told to wait.)

"What will Mary do?"

Ans.: "Mary will give you a pencil."

The answer is written on a slate with the article underlined, as;

Mary will give you a pencil.

T: "Do you know which pencil Mary will give me? Do you know which pencil I want?" (It is obvious that the children cannot know.)

"Do I know which pencil? Do I know which pencil Mary will give me?" (It is equally obvious that the teacher has no way of knowing.)

Ans.: "No."

T: "I will teach you a rule for *a*."

Teacher writes rule two on a slate.

I do not know
and
You do not know } a

T: "I do not know, you do not know.—I shall write *a*."

A great deal of work should be given here in contrasting the use of *a* and *the*. This can be done by letting the children take turns playing teacher. Each pupil has a chance to give commands using the articles. If a mistake is made, the "teacher" relinquishes her position to the next in line.

Viz: "Show me a piece of chalk."

"Bring me the calendar."

"Give a book to John."

"Point to the clock."

"Show me a fern." *etc., etc.*

When the children have mastered the fundamental difference between the uses of *a* and *the,* rules three and four can be taught.

Inasmuch as the children already have an understanding of the principle involved, these two rules can be taught together in a very delightful guessing game, *viz:*

Teacher writes rules three and four on a slate.

I do not know
and
You know } a

I know
and
You do not know } a

T: "I am thinking of something in this room. What is it?"
Pupils: "Is it a plant?"
"Is it the clock?"
"Is it a chair?" *etc.*

In a large class once around is long enough for one question. If the question is answered correctly, the reply is given using the article, *viz:*
Ques.: "I am thinking of something in this room. What is it?"
Ans.: "Is it a desk?"
Reply: "Yes, it is a desk."
Ques.: "I am thinking of something in this room. What is it?"
Ans.: "Is it the clock?"
Reply: "Yes, it is the clock."

The children take turns being teacher.

A great many uses of the article are bound to come up in class. The elasticity of the rules enables the teacher to handle successfully all the difficulties previously encountered.

The definite article is used innumerable times when common knowledge is taken for granted. To illustrate:

1. I swept the floor.
2. Father is in the cellar.
3. Louis is in the kitchen.

It is quite possible that the particular floor, cellar, and kitchen in sentences 1, 2, and 3 are not known to all, but it is known to all that with few exceptions houses have a floor, cellar, and kitchen. They are parts of a house, and *those parts are common knowledge.*

We say, "I went to the movies," because everyone knows what movies are. At the same time we can say, "I went to a movie," and not conflict with the rules.

Common uses of the article are apt to be puzzling at first. *Careful thought and application of the rules in a broad way can clarify the constructions.*

The teacher must be very careful to use the articles correctly. It is very easy to say, "Shut the window," when more than one window is open at the time. That brings us to the use of limiting adjectives and phrases.

We can say, "Shut the window next to the closet," because

"next to the closet" designates which window is to be shut, thus making it known to both parties.

We can look at a group of various books and say, "Bring me the red book," *provided that particular book is the only red book in the group.* The adjective "red" limits the choice to one book, thus making the book known or definite.

A good test of the children's use of the articles is an elliptical paragraph which calls for the use of both the definite and indefinite, *viz:*

One day John wanted to see ____ bluebird. He walked into ____ woods. After awhile he sat down on ____ log. Pretty soon he saw ____ bluebird in ____ big bush. John crept near ____ bush and watched ____ bird. It had ____ worm in its bill. Poor John sneezed! "Hachoo!!" ____ bluebird dropped ____ worm and flew away.

The old rule, "First time *a,* after that *the,*" breaks down under a test like the foregoing paragraph. Following that rule a child would write:

"One day John wanted to see a bluebird. He walked into a woods. After awhile he sat down on a log. Pretty soon he saw *the* bluebird in a big bush." etc.

The child's use of *the* cannot be avoided and the teacher can say only, "Yes, 'First time *a,* after that *the*' but not always." The conclusion is not at all satisfactory to teacher or pupil.

Let us write the paragraph and then analyze it using the new rules.

"One day John wanted to see a bluebird. He walked into the woods. After awhile he sat down on a log. Pretty soon he saw a bluebird in a big bush. John crept near the bush and watched. The bluebird had a worm in its bill. Poor John sneezed! "Hachoo!!" The bluebird dropped the worm and flew away."

"One day John wanted to see a bluebird."

I don't know which bluebird he wanted to see and you don't know.

"He walked into the woods."

I know what woods are and you know what woods are.

"After awhile he sat down on a log."

I don't know about the log and you don't know.

"Pretty soon he saw a bluebird in a big bush."

I don't know which bluebird and you don't know.

I don't know which bush and you don't know.

"John crept near the bush and watched."

I know and you know which bush. We know about the bush. The bluebird is in it. John did not creep near another bush. That would be foolish.

"The bluebird had a worm in its bill."

I know and you know which bird. We know about the bird. John saw it. It is the same bird.

I don't know which worm and you don't know. We don't know about the worm. "The bluebird dropped the worm and flew away."

It is the same bluebird and the same worm. We know about them. John saw them.

The preceding analysis is written as it might be presented to a class of deaf children.

To say that this new method of teaching *a* and *the* does away with all mistakes would be the height of folly. The method does minimize errors and, most important of all, it gives the pupils a definite language pattern.

A teacher helping a pupil to use the article correctly need not say, "Yes, the first time *a,* after that *the,* but not always." With this new approach the teacher can give an absolute remedy, *viz:*

In a room provided with plenty of windows, Mary feels warm and says, "May I open the window?"

T: "You made a mistake. Do I know which window?"

Mary: "No."

T: "All right. Think about the rules for *a.* I know, you do not know. I shall write—."

Mary: "a".

Mary was confused or careless. The teacher had a definite and tangible procedure which she could follow. She could handle the situation with a feeling of confidence and Mary could be made to understand the mistake she made and how to correct it. Such a conclusion is indeed satisfactory to both Mary and the teacher.

This method is now in its third year of use and has been carefully observed. It has held up under countless tests of application. The teachers using it have rejoiced in its simplicity and the children understand the rules and apply them.

One morning it was letter day in school. Bobby, one of the hard workers, wrote a letter to his mother. In it he told of a fire which he had seen the day before while out taking a walk. He made a mistake, and wrote," . . . we saw *the* fire. . . . "

When Bobby brought his paper up to the desk to be corrected, the error was detected and he was asked if his mother knew about the fire. He took one look at his letter and said, "*a*".

A Verb-Type Method of Language Instruction

By JAMES N. ORMAN, B.A.
Instructor in the Illinois School, Jacksonville, Illinois

THE FOLLOWING method of language instruction was devised for use in the upper grades of the Illinois School and is presented after three years of classroom application. Something was desired that would meet the needs of the older deaf pupil struggling with the intricacies of language —a method that would be simple, in the sense of readily learned; basic, in the sense of incorporating the essentials of language mechanics; and convenient, in the sense of ease of daily use as applied to written language work.

Applying the above tests, the Fitzgerald Key and the Barry Five-Slate System were found by the writer to be inadequate for the purpose in mind. Developed primarily for use with younger children, and intended principally to promote "naturalness" in the order of sentence elements, the devices they make use of are too complicated for convenience of application to day-by-day written work of older pupils.

The Wing Symbols on the other hand seemed to meet the requirements. However, they, too were finally rejected. In the reasons for this rejection is contained the principle of the present method.

All prop methods begin with the verb and stress verb-type—transitive, intransitive and linking. The present method is no exception. The subject-verb- (object or predicate word or modifier) relationship is so fundamental it must be mastered by the pupil if he is to make any progress in language. The verb-type is the key to the formula.

The verb-type, however, must be made not merely the point of departure but the keystone of the arch. In the Fitzgerald Key a single column and symbol are used for the verb indiscriminately. This is true also of the Five-Slate System. The Wing Symbols, on the other hand, do retain the

distinction. However, the way the symbols are used in actual practice has a tendency to blur the primary fact. The method here presented seeks to avoid this blurring by making the verb-type central to the entire system in unmistakable terms.

The hearing child, of course, does not think transitive, intransitive and linking verb when expressing himself. By asking a deaf child to do so we are adopting an artificial procedure. However, the writer is of opinion this is not so artificial as it seems at first glance. The hearing child is aware that "go" is not followed by "what," or "see" by "glad." The deaf pupil does experience difficulty here. Whatever the psychological reasons for the difficulty and however deep-seated subconsciously, the fact remains we have a clue pointing straight to the first principle of language mechanics: the previously stated subject-verb-(object or predicate word or modifier) formula.

Procedure

The children at the outset learn to distinguish transitive verbs. A transitive verb is any action verb whose meaning allows it to be followed by a WHO or WHAT word. Lists of transitive verbs are made and checked with the two test words. By having pupils make and check their own lists the distinction is firmly fixed.

Intransitive verbs, like transitive verbs, are action words. They cannot be followed by WHO and WHAT words. Lists are here again prepared and checked.

The linking verb is approached differently. The writer's practice is to put the word BE in the centre of a slate. From the word radii are drawn in all directions. At the termini of the radii are written *is, am, are, was, were, may be, shall be, have been,* etc., until a circle of linking verbs surrounds BE. These verbs express different tenses and numbers of the verb BE. Attention is now called to the fact that whereas transitive and intransitive verbs are action words, linking verbs do not express action but being.

When this is understood, another aspect of linking verbs

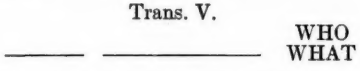
is taken up. Certain other verbs are often used as linking verbs, i.e., *seem, look, appear, become, turn,* etc. ("Tom looked pale" is equivalent to "Tom was pale.") On the slate these verbs are placed under or adjoining the circle of regular linking verbs. Ordinarily they number less than ten.

It will be well to bring out the fact that these "auxiliary" linking verbs are often used transitively and intransitively in other meanings. Thus, *appear* is linking in the sense of *be,* and intransitive in the sense of *come; turn* may be linking, transitive or intransitive.

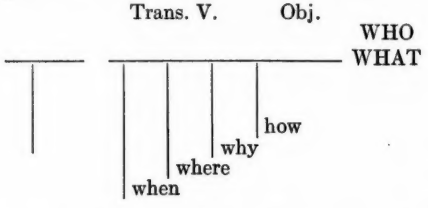
The pupils have now classified the verbs. The writer usually allows one to two weeks for this step. At any rate, the pupil is not prepared for what follows unless he has learned to discriminate with a fair degree of facility.

The Transitive Verb Diagram

With a list of transitive verbs before the class, the following diagram is drawn on an adjoining slate:



A verb from the list is inserted under *Trans. V,* on the line. The class supplies a WHO or WHAT word. This is repeated with several verbs. A subject word may now be used. The WHO and/or WHAT word is stated to be the object. Adjective elements describing the subject and object are written underneath on slanting lines. There are four lines for the adverbial elements answering to WHEN, WHERE, WHY, HOW. The completed diagram:



The students may now diagram given sentences containing only transitive verbs and objects. A good language work-

book will supply a satisfactory number.[1] The pupils are required to use rulers to make neat uniform lines. Neatness is stressed as an aid to orderliness of thought.

Rule: Sentence given—first copy, then diagram underneath.

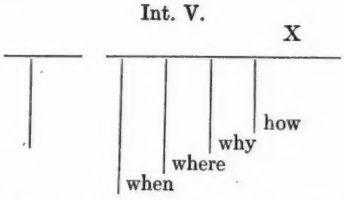
After sufficient exercises have been given, original sentences are constructed with the diagram.

Rule: Original sentence—first put in diagram, then write sentence underneath.

The Intransitive Verb Diagram

List of intransitive verbs on the slate.

The diagram:

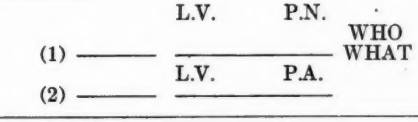


WHO and WHAT are first written in the position of the cross. After it has been repeated that an intransitive verb cannot be followed by WHO and/or WHAT, the words are crossed out, erased, and the cross alone used.

Exercises from workbook, followed by original sentences, following the rules given.

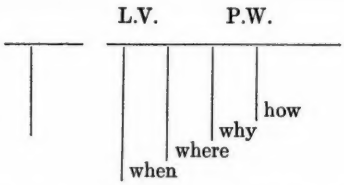
The Linking Verb Diagram

A list of linking verbs is prepared in the circle-formation around BE and "auxiliary" linking verbs are placed under or adjoining the circle. The linking verb diagram has a double aspect. Each is taken up singly and so used until each is mastered:



[1] "Practice Sheets in English Grammar and Punctuation," Harriet R. Lockwood, American Book Company, has been found satisfactory.

combined and completed:



In the above P.N. stands for predicate noun; P.A., for predicate adjective, and P.W., for predicate word. After the double nature of the diagram is clearly understood, the blanket designation is allowed.

While the predicate noun diagram is being presented, it is contrasted with the transitive verb diagram. Both diagrams take WHO and/or WHAT. In the transitive diagram the subject and object refer to *different* entities; in the linking diagram subject and predicate noun refer to the *same* entities. The latter are seen to be equivalent and can commonly be transposed without altering the sense. This difference will prove very important as the teacher proceeds and will have to be returned to again and again.

Drills and original work using procedure outlined above.

The Simple Sentence

Using the three basic diagrams, we proceed to build up. The four variations of the simple sentence are:

1. S V
2. S V V
3. S S V
4. S S V V

Expressed diagrammatically, these constructions take the form:

1. S V
2. S V
   ( )
   V
3. S( )S V

4. S( )S V
( )
V

the parentheses enclosing the conjunction, and the verb deciding the construction of the completed diagram.

Drills on mixed types of simple sentences.

Rules for diagramming:

Phrases are diagrammed as equivalent to single words and never allowed to be broken up, *i.e.*, "on the table," "entering the room," "to win the game" are adjectives, adverbs or nouns depending on use.

Verbal nouns and infinitives will be either subject or object or predicate noun, rarely adjective or adverbial.

The Compound Sentence

The compound sentence is diagrammed as two simple sentences joined by a co-ordinate conjunction inserted in parentheses:

S V
( )
S V

Exercises from workbook; original sentences.

The Complex Sentence

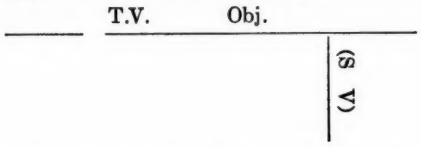
Clauses are units of the sentence used as nouns, adjectives or adverbs. To indicate that they are so used and have subjects and verbs of their own, they are always enclosed in parentheses.

There are eight complex sentence diagrams. Each should be taken up in turn with exercises from the workbook and followed by original sentences.

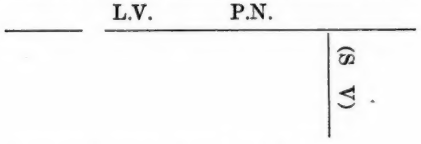
1. Adjective clause describing subject:

S V
(S V)

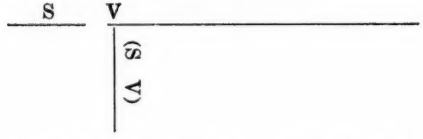
2. Adjective clause describing object:



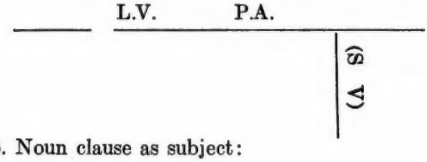
3. Adjective clause describing predicate noun:



4. Adverbial clause describing verb:

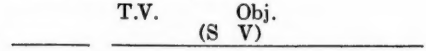


5. Adverbial clause describing predicate adjective:

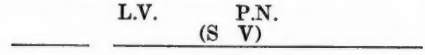


6. Noun clause as subject:

7. Noun clause as object:



8. Noun clause as predicate noun:



Noun clauses will give most difficulty in original work. They should be returned to again and again during the years of application of diagrams.

Exercises with all types of sentences may now be given. Our procedure is as follows: (1) basic diagrams (2) simple sentences with compound subject and predicate (3) compound sentences (4) mixed simple and compound sentences

(5) complex sentences—individual clauses (6) mixed simple, compound and complex.

Application of Diagrams

The final step is the one toward which the whole method is aimed.

All written work is now on the following basis: The pupil receives two sheets of paper. The sentence is first constructed diagrammatically. Then it is written on the other sheet. This procedure is followed sentence after sentence. The sentences are arranged in the usual sequence and paragraph division. The diagrams are handed in with the written exercise. In the case of incorrectly constructed sentences the diagrams can be referred to.

The pupil will most likely reveal a tendency to write the sentence first and diagram it afterwards but this is discouraged since we are seeking to establish new habit patterns.

In order to promote a more natural order of sentence elements, the rule is made that modifiers be kept as near as possible to the words they describe.

The start in original language work with diagrams is made with news items and subjects like: "The Story of My Life," "My Weekend," "A Day at I. S. D." Compositions based on topics of general news and interest and reviews of books read furnish other material. Vocabulary exercises using words from the Thorndike Word List and studied in the new Thorndike Dictionary and framed in the diagrams have been found practicable.

The writer finds that a three-month period brings the average class from the verb classification to the beginning of original composition work with the diagrams.

The method is intended to promote orderly thinking and neatness of workmanship. The thoroughness with which the diagrams are mastered in the preliminary period largely determines their usefulness in application.

A Reading Project

By Fannie Day Hurst
Late Instructor in the Utah School
Ogden, Utah

The Skating Contest (from Hans Brinker)

The making of two or three detailed reading projects a year, in each reading class, is one way of infusing interest into the mind of the pupil, as well as of giving him a keener insight into hidden meanings, of increasing vocabulary and of nurturing the ability to organize thought.

The pupil has a sense of pride in the completed project; it is usually very attractive to look at and it is, he begins to feel, an expression of something worth while. It is largely his work, which gives it an added value, for while it has been built under the teacher's guidance, each project reflects the individuality of its sponsor.

As the lesson is developed, papers prepared by the pupil day by day, are filed by him until he is ready to put them into a unit—his project. He has, in our case, permission to incorporate into his project any illustration, picture or paragraph contributed by someone else that he—the party of the first part!—particularly likes. Papers are frequently exchanged in class, the maps, drawings and diagrams of one often inspiring others to better work. Generosity is encouraged, with the understanding that letting others openly copy some one or two things is the kind thing to do. In all original, daily work, the pupil is asked to depend upon himself only.

These projects the pupil will look over, we hope, in future years, and the more of interest the project contains, of his own work or some classmate's, the more benefit it will be to him.

We do not hurry when building our projects. The text of the reader is merely a foundation upon which to work; vocabulary, interpretation, art, mythology, history, geography—whatever may be suggested as we proceed—become part of the project.

After one project has been prepared, the pupil falls rather naturally to work in preparing others, often making very helpful suggestions.

If it is possible to make booklets of the projects, using for the covers the pretty blues, reds, greens, yellows of the school magazine covers, and plain white sheets for the contents, all cut in the print shop, the result is something to be treasured.

Where the notebook is used for the project, the first right-hand page of the project may be made to imitate the cover of the separate booklet, even to drawing little circles for the punched holes and drawing the tied cords or ribbons.

In using notebooks, we usually draw a vertical line to mark off the right third of each page. This narrow column is labeled "Vocabulary." The vocabulary may in this way be kept near the portion of the story to whieh it belongs.

In the case of the project for The Skating Contest from Hans Brinker, the class chose a dull blue for the booklet cover.

On the outside of the front cover, each child used such a design, appropriate to the subject, as he chose. There had of course been visits to the library to consult reference books on Holland. One student drew and colored a bowl of poppies, cut it out and pasted it on. Another drew a view of the seashore, a dike and a windmill; another, a Dutch boy kneeling to fasten a skate on the foot of a Dutch girl. These drawings were colored.

On the title page was written,

The Skating Match
(from Hans Brinker)

Studied at

(Here was interposed a colored drawing of a poppy, with the inscription, "Holland's Flower".)

The State School for the Deaf,

Ogden, Utah.

The name of the pupil.
The date.

On the next sheet was a map of Holland, with details around the Zuider Zee region. Below the map was the quotation,

"God made the sea; we made the land."

Preparing for this, we had developed the first two details; the history of the poppy trade in Holland and the geography of the country, with the quotation above to impress the arduousness of the work of reclaiming the land.

Then came a hectographed and colored full-page Dutch scene, decided upon by the class during the trip to the library.

Vocabulary came next. (All vocabulary developments were collected into this one section. Only a few examples can be given here.)

1. To defy—to fight against the power of—(cognate—defiance).
   Ex. The ice flashed defiance at the world.
   The ice defied the sun to melt it.
2. Spectators are those who watch, or see, what is happening. A great many spectators will come to our lawn fête. (Cognates—spectacular, spectacles, specter, spectrum, and such others as the class may be able to take.)
3. A peasant is one of the lower, or working, class in Europe.
   Opposites; a peasant—a noble; of high birth—of low birth; plebeian—patrician.
   Patriotic tie-up; "All men are created—equal." The Declaration of Independence.

List all verbs that mean, "to go very, very fast";—to hasten, to dart, to spring forward, to race, to fly, to rush, to whiz, to flash by, to shoot past.

Idioms; "to give up," "they are off," "to skate in turn," "with good grace."

A valuable device which will aid the class in vocabulary building and understanding is the triangle or ladder diagram to indicate how a word of basic meaning can be the base or bottom "rung" of a family of words. For instance, the pupils may learn that a word like "good" at the base may build up into a series of words related in degree of meaning, such as "fine," "excellent," "perfect," or "interested in" may grow into the series "allured by," "fascinated by," "absorbed by" or "in." Or the progression may take a form such as "slaves," "serfs," "peasants," "gentry," "nobles."

This procedure can be employed until the outstanding words of the project have been covered.

After these vocabulary pages the summary of the text followed, either as a story in reproduction or a running outline, or perhaps answers to a series of questions and statements—elliptical, selective, true and false—given by the teacher.

On each of these pages there should be at least one indentation—in the right hand margin or, perhaps, breaking into a sentence or on the left, for little illustrations, drawn by the pupil, as the text suggests.

For instance, one of our booklets had a drawing of a weather vane and another of a windmill on one page, a little Dutch girl, top right on the next page, a diagram of the decorated arches with dotted, arrowed lines to depict the final skating parade, full width, bottom of another page, and another had a pair of skates, a pair of wooden shoes, and so on.

At the end of the summary one full page with lower right half indented for a drawing of a stork told of the value of that bird to the farmers of Holland. There was also a paragraph built upon the story of the time the sea gulls ate the swarms of grasshoppers in Utah. The whole ended with the sentence, given as an ellipsis, originally, to the class: The (*stork*) is to Holland what the (*sea gull*) is to Utah.

There was at this time a discussion in class of the superstitutions regarding the sacred ibis and the albatross, and the difference (antonyms) between real and imagined help from the birds, as well as of the words superstition and superstitious.

The next full page carried a copied drawing of the "The Flying Mercury." Here we have our tie-up with mythology. The following sheet had a short reproduction of the myth of Mercury, the personification of the wind. (The skaters in Hans Brinker were said to be like "flying Mercuries.") Finally, they chose from the proverbs which they had collected for two years those suggested to them by the story. This booklet used the following:

Practice makes perfect.
Never say die.
A friend in need is a friend indeed.
Do not cry over spilt milk.
Birds of a feather flock together.
Where there is smoke, there is fire.
One good turn deserves another.
If at first you don't succeed, try, try again.
There is always tomorrow.
It was the last straw.

When the sheets were assembled, we went to the print shop where holes were punched and the booklets tied together with red cord. This project involved art, political history, geography, natural history, mythology, patriotism, current events, as well as vocabulary, and literary appreciation and interpretation.

There need be no monotony in the planning of projects. They are often in fact like Topsy—they just grow if given a chance.

Trained Supervisors

By ALAN B. CRAMMATTE, M.A.
Instructor in the Louisiana School
Baton Rouge, Louisiana
and
MAX FRIEDMAN, B.S.
Instructor in the New York School
White Plains, New York

ONE OF THE features of the 1937 meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf was the concern shown over character education and social training. Three papers, a panel discussion and a symposium were directly related to these subjects and the problem of character education appeared in disguised form in several papers treating of other subjects. Regional conferences of executives have been discussing the problem and school publications have printed much about it of late. This would seem to indicate that character education is a major problem of the present day and that its results are pertinent to all branches of the field of teaching the deaf.

The literature and actual working practice of schools for the deaf seem to have overlooked the best situations and the most appropriate person to administer character education to the children. As a result of a misbegotten tradition we have attacked the problem from a weak point of view—that of the teacher. Character education does not come wholly from reading books or classroom admonishments. Character education can not be successfully imparted through an academic medium. A child can read or listen to volumes of the best advice, but he will not retain it long unless an opportunity arrives to put it to use in a concrete situation, and the more frequent the opportunity the better the retention. Granted that the teacher wields a strong influence on a child's character in the classroom; but there is no certainty, however, that children will apply the precepts acquired in the classroom to the problems of their daily life. And is it not true that the solution by their own efforts of the present problems of living offers the children their best avenue of character development?

Assuming that the child's character is best developed outside the classroom, how can we best reach him and present our training in the most direct manner? A majority of the residential schools for the deaf have certain hobby activities, athletic associations, Scout troops, literary societies and reading clubs; these are all proven means of character education. However, these activities are often administered separately, causing frequent conflicts, and they sometimes fail to attract the children as strongly as they might. Are not the play activities the most important thing in life to a young child? A child's interest, loyalty and desire for leadership find their most fertile soil there. Anyone who has directed play activities knows that an ever-present problem is the clamoring group of children who want to be "captain."

The logical individual to direct the children's play activities would seem to be the person on the school staff who has the most frequent contact with the children and who is the closest approximation to a parent. It is evident to even the most casual view that the supervisors are the members of the school personnel most constantly in contact with the children and that the supervisors' duties more nearly approximate the functions of parents toward the children. It is the supervisors who train the children to wash and clothe themselves, to make their beds and clean their rooms, to eat properly and to perform the many household duties that fall to the lot of pupils in a residential school. It is to the supervisors that the pupils should look for advice and correction in their personal and social problems. The supervisors' constant contact should be a source of inspiration to the children and a powerful factor in molding their characters.

There are, of course, objections to placing the responsibility for character education upon the supervisors. Under the present arrangement the head supervisor in a majority of schools is overloaded with manifold and burdensome duties, and he must spend a great portion of his time on "police duty." Some will say that the supervisors through lack of training are unable to cope with problems arising

from the administration of activities, despite the fact that they have not been given the opportunity to prove themselves, due to their full schedules and the low salary scale which inhibits their studying to improve themselves in their particular field. Others may object that the pupils' daily contact and subsequent familiarity with the supervisors might thwart their spirit of play while under the guidance of the supervisors. And those whose professional ideals are carried over from the century past might argue that the supervisor is not the proper example for the children, his social and economic level being too low.

These objections are pertinent in some cases, under the concept that a supervisor belongs to a period several generations past but still with us in actual practice. Under this concept the position is all too often filled by persons mentally or temperamentally not fitted to the difficult task of building character. With no real qualification for their positions other than a willingness to work for low pay and keep an eye open for possible malefactors, they do not win, nor do they deserve, the respect of the children in their care. This situation breeds in the children a rebellious attitude toward restrictions they may regard as needless and a contempt for authority, an unhealthy and unpleasant state of mind for future citizens.

However, the contention that the supervisor is not a sufficiently exalted person to oversee the character education of the children will have to be discarded in this discussion, for the key to the whole problem lies in placing the position of head supervisor—better, dean, on so high a level professionally, socially and financially that it will attract some of the best talent in the coming generation of professional workers. By this we do not mean merely raising salaries, but dignifying and broadening the field. We contend that the appointment of deans to serve as administrators of all extra-classroom activities would replace the faults outlined above with positive virtues and solve many another problem of administration harassing the leaders of our profession today. In the light of the present-day emphasis on character education and learning through actual experience, does it not

seem that our extra-classroom activities deserve the status of a separate department with a departmental head on a social, financial and professional level approximating that of the prinicipals and supervising teachers?

The creation of such a department might seem a drastic move, but let us examine some of the benefits that would accrue thereby. The children would benefit by a soundly planned and well integrated program of play and social activities tending to develop character and social aptitudes rather than to keep them amused and out of mischief. The field of supervisor would be improved in that the supervisor's status would be raised and a fine personnel would be attracted to this line of work. Teachers would be relieved of considerable extra duty and could devote themselves more fully to improving their efforts in the particular sphere for which they were trained. The superintendent and the principal would be relieved of much detail work, such as arranging schedules, planning for movies, parties and the like, supervising extra-curricular activities and other duties that are really not included in a definitive outline of their work. The whole school would benefit by the closer integration of activities and the limitation of responsibility to one head.

The benefits and virtues of such an arrangement would tend to displace the faults of the present supervising plan and to eliminate the objections to such a move. The argument that head supervisors have too many duties now can be met by delegating some of the household duties to the house staff—the matron, the head nurse, the head of the laundry department—and to the assistant supervisors. The present duties of supervisors are irksome and monotonous because of their routine nature; the supervision of play activities would add variety to their days. More than a few supervisors have expressed a desire to take part in the management of intra-mural athletics because the activity would serve as a break in the monotony of their routine. Lack of training could be eliminated by requiring that prospective appointees be trained for extra-curricular administration as deans, the deans serving as integrators and administrators

with assistants carrying out the actual work and thus training themselves to serve as deans in the future. With the proper person in charge and the proper authority and prestige vested in him the children's familiarity would become a virtue instead of a drawback. They would have greater affection for the dean because he or she would be the source of their pleasures and the arbiter of their problems; the dean's position of authority would command their respect and constant contact would lead to greater confidence in the dean. The question of the dean's social status would be automatically solved by the position of authority held and the higher salary scale.

The major obstacles to the establishment of such a department seem to be (1) financial difficulties and (2) the lack of workers trained to undertake such a position. The solution of the first problem presents no field for argument; either it is impossible or the plan is so attractive that the executive can convince his board of the wisdom of paying larger salaries to his deans and supervisors. As to the wisdom of such an expenditure those familiar with our problems should have no doubts. The solution of the second problem does not offer so many difficulties as appear on the face of it. Create the demand and the source of training and the supply will be taken care of. There can be little doubt that in the ranks of the future members of our profession there is a sufficiency of men and women who would welcome the opportunity to mold the characters and supervise the social development of our boys and girls, provided the opportunity offered satisfactory emolument, professional recognition and a sound future. Creating the source of training might present something of a problem, for supervisors should come from the ranks of the deaf. Gallaudet College does not offer specific courses in this field and the way of a deaf man in a college for the hearing is hard. However, even if it were impossible for Gallaudet to offer training in this field, still the selection of the proper man, the insistence that he prepare himself while employed, and aid in his efforts to better himself in his field might result in the problem's solving itself. More and more deaf teachers are study-

ing for degrees in colleges for the hearing, and if it is possible to learn the techniques of teaching surely it is possible to learn the techniques of administering extra-curricular activities, intra-mural athletics and playground supervision. In some cases deaf men are doing exactly that, even without the stimulus of a position of prestige and responsibility. Withhold the promise of a sound future and a higher social place in the professional ranks and the plan might defeat itself; offer these perquisites and the coming generation of deaf educators of the deaf will respond nobly.

Objective Tests for the Woodworking Shop

By Sam G. Benning
Instructor in the New York School
White Plains, New York

The following tests were prepared for deaf boys in advanced woodworking classes. They are designed to measure, as far as possible, the ability of the pupils and their knowledge of woodworking terms and operations. By giving the same tests to different classes and keeping a record of their scores it should be possible to build up a standard which will give an accurate idea as to what may be expected of a class.

As the tests cover a wide field they should be given at different times during the school year as the class completes the work covered by each test. When all the tests have been given, the teacher should change the scores into grades to determine the relative position of each student in respect to the rest of the group.

I—True-False Test

Below are statements, some true and some false. If you think the statement is true put a circle around the T. If you think the statement is false put a circle around the F. The score will be the number attempted minus two times the number wrong.

T F 1. A hammer is used to drive nails.
T F 2. An awl is used to set nails.
T F 3. An auger bit is used to cut stones.
T F 4. A wood chisel is used to cut wood.
T F 5. A backsaw is used to rip stock.
T F 6. A try square is used as a guide for the pencil.
T F 7. A brace is used to hold the bit while boring.
T F 8. A ripsaw is used to square lumber.
T F 9. A countersink is used to chamfer holes to receive screw heads.
T F 10. A steel square is used to square lumber of large dimension.

T F 11. The point of a nail set is round.
T F 12. A screw driver is used to pull nails.
T F 13. The miter square is used for miter joints.
T F 14. A rasp is used to shape wood.
T F 15. A flat file is used to file handsaws.
T F 16. The cutting edge of a saw tooth is at right angles to the saw handle.
T F 17. A rat-tail file is used to file a ripsaw.
T F 18. The panel saw needs to be set every time it is filed.
T F 19. The blade of a coping saw should be put in the frame with the teeth slanting toward the handle.
T F 20. The doweling jig is used in doweling a joint together.
T F 21. A plow plane is used for smoothing lumber.
T F 22. A block plane is usually used in one hand.
T F 23. The cross-cut handsaw has five teeth to the inch.
T F 24. Poplar wood has a greenish-yellow cast.
T F 25. A workbench has five vises.
T F 26. A gouge chisel has a flat edge.
T F 27. A mallet is used for driving nails.
T F 28. Oak wood is generally used for flooring.
T F 29. The ripsaw has five teeth to the inch.
T F 30. White pine wood is very hard.
T F 31. A gouge chisel has a round edge.
T F 32. Screws are easily pulled with a clawhammer.
T F 33. Birch wood is very hard to work.
T F 34. Clear varnish makes a beautiful natural wood finish.
T F 35. Shellac is cut with alcohol.
T F 36. Varnish is cut with turpentine.
T F 37. Mahogany is often used for interior trim.
T F 38. The basement of a house is immediately under the roof.
T F 39. Nail holes should be puttied after the priming coat has been put on.
T F 40. The knots of a board should have a coat of shellac before the board is painted.

T F 41. Celotex is good for insulation.
T F 42. A mitered corner is always used on picture frames.
T F 43. Butt hinges are used on interior doors.
T F 44. Doors always open to the right.
T F 45. Double-hung windows have cast iron weights.
T F 46. Dormer windows are always found on the first story of a house.
T F 47. Wild cherry wood is well adapted for furniture.
T F 48. Mahogany wood has a curly grain.
T F 49. The coping saw is used for cutting small curves.
T F 50. A sandpaper block must be used to get a smooth surface.

II—Single-Answer Test

Below are some questions. Write the answer to each question in the space before the question. The score will be the number of correct answers.

1. ..... What kind of wood is used in lining cedar closets?
2. ..... How many hinges has a bathroom medicine cabinet?
3. ..... Is oak wood good for flooring?
4. ..... What tool is used for driving nails?
5. ..... Is maple wood good for flooring?
6. ..... How many inches are in one foot?
7. ..... How many sides has a cube?
8. ..... How many degrees has a right angle?
9. ..... For what is walnut wood generally used?
10. ..... Why is pine wood easily worked?
11. ..... How many degrees are there in an equilateral triangle?
12. ..... What tool is used for sloyd work?
13. ..... What tree produces sugar?
14. ..... How many degrees are in each angle of an equilateral triangle?
15. ..... What tree produces turpentine?
16. ..... For what is turpentine used?
17. ..... What tree produces rubber?

18. ..... Where is glass used in a house?
19. ..... What tool is used for putting in screws?
20. ..... What tool is used for making round holes in wood?

III—Multiple-Choice Test

Below are some unfinished statements, followed by some suggested responses. Choose the response which seems the best and place the number preceding it in front of the statement to which it belongs. The score will be the number you get right.

..... The six-foot wooden ruler is commonly used by (1) carpenters (2) printers (3) paper hangers (4) painters (5) draftsmen.

..... The smallest dimension found on a standard 2-foot rule is (1) 1/4 inch (2) 1/2 inch (3) 1/8 inch (4) 1/16 inch (5) 3/4 inch (6) 1/12 inch.

..... Screws are most economically bought by the (1) pound (2) dozen (3) gross (4) piece (5) thousand.

..... "16D Common" is the size of (1) a screw (2) a bolt (3) a nail (4) a corrugated fastener.

..... A 12-point saw is generally used to (1) rip lumber (2) cross cut stock (3) smooth off stock (4) measure the stock (5) straighten the stock.

..... Yellow pine lumber is (1) soft (2) medium soft (3) hard (4) very hard (5) both hard grained and soft grained.

..... When lumber is ready to be made into furniture it is (1) green (2) wet (3) air dried (4) kiln dried.

..... The correct auger bit for boring a hole in a piece of wood 1 inch in diameter is size (1) #6 (2) #8 (3) #12 (4) #13 (5) #14 (6) #16.

..... The preparation used to cut shellac is (1) Linseed oil (2) turpentine (3) alcohol (4) benzine (5) Japan drier.

..... The saw-set is used for (1) sharpening the teeth (2) squaring the teeth (3) spreading the teeth (4) slanting the teeth.

IV—Matching Test

Find the item in Column II which completes the word in Column I. Place the number in front of the item in Column II before the proper word in Column I. The score will be the number right.

Column I	Column II
..... Poplar	1. set
..... Tack	2. jig
..... Screw	3. plane
..... Nail	4. hammer
..... Doweling	5. wood
..... Block	6. driver
..... Work	7. gauge
..... Marking	8. bit
..... Counter	9. bench
..... Brace	10. level
..... Spirit	11. sink
..... Try	12. square
	13. wrench
	14. mortise

Find the item in Column II that completes the item in Column I. Place the number in front of the item in Column II before the proper item in Column I. The score will be the number right.

Column I	Column II
..... Making toys	1. is hard and serviceable.
..... Chairs	2. is sometimes dangerous in school shops.
..... Lumber	3. must be careful in the shop.
..... Machinery	4. sometimes makes a good finish.
..... Boys	5. is fine to work with in the shop.
..... Maple wood	6. is a good project for small boys.

..... Poplar wood	7. requires skill.
..... Oil stains	8. must be stacked properly if the best results are to be had.
..... Finishing hard wood	9. are repaired in the wood shop.
..... Good results	10. are the result of good workmanship.

V—Completion Test

Below are some sentences with a word or words missing. Think of the word that should fill this space to make the sentence complete. Write the word in this space, and also write it in the space in front of the sentence. Your score will be the total number you get right.

This sentence shows how to do it:

(A) ..*soft*.. Poplar wood is a (A) ..*soft*.. wood.

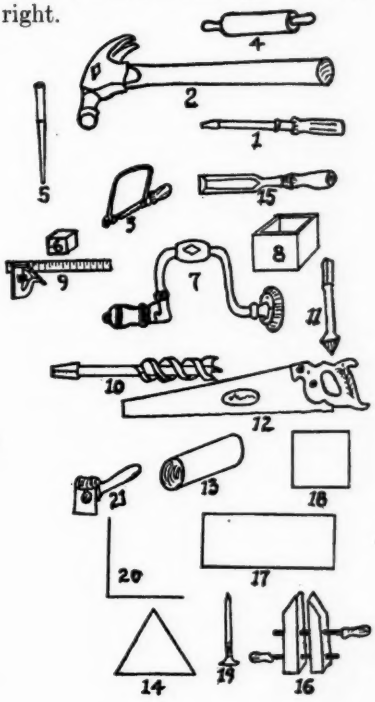
1. ..... A ruler is used for (1) .....
2. ..... A coping saw has a very (2) ..... blade.
3. ..... A smooth plane is used for (3) ..... wood.
4. ..... A screw driver is used for (4) ..... screws.
5. ..... A compass saw has a (5) ..... blade.
6. ..... A steel square is used for (6) ..... timber
7. ..... of (7) ..... dimensions.
8. ..... A bit brace is used for (8) ..... the bit
9. ..... while (9) ..... holes in wood.
10. ..... A mallet is used for driving a (10) ..... into the wood.
11. ..... Sandpaper is used for (11) ..... the surface of wood.
12. ..... A nail set is used for (12) ..... the nail
13. ..... head below the (13) ..... of the wood.
14. ..... A cabinet scraper is used for (14) ..... the surface of wood.
15. ..... The vise on a (15) ..... is used for holding
16. ..... wood while (16) .....
17. ..... A clawhammer is used for (17) ..... nails as well as for driving them.

18. ..... A ripsaw is used to rip boards with the (18) .....
19. ..... Dividers are used for (19) ..... a given length into equal parts.
20. ..... An oilstone is used for (20) ..... the edge of tools.
21. ..... A hacksaw is used for cutting (21) .....
22. ..... The block plane is used for cutting the (22) ..... of wood.
23. ..... Putty is used for filling (23) .....
24. ..... Paint is put on wood to (24) ..... it from wear.
25. ..... Maple wood is a (25) ..... wood.

VI—Identification Test

Below are some figures with numbers. Put the number on the figure in front of the item to which it belongs. The score will be the total number right.

..... square
..... right angle
..... rectangle
..... cube
..... cylinder
..... rolling-pin
..... coping saw
..... triangle
..... box
..... handsaw
..... screw driver
..... wood chisel
..... brace
..... miter try square
..... nail set
..... countersink
..... nail
..... hand screw clamp
..... auger bit
..... clawhammer
..... cabinet scraper



VII—Oral Examination

1. Why is ply wood better for toys than most other kinds of wood?
2. How is a tree made into lumber?
3. What is the difference between a smooth plane and a fore plane?
4. What is the use of a hand screw clamp?
5. What is a saw clamp?
6. Why do we use screws instead of nails?
7. Why do we put shingles on the roof of a house?
8. What is a yard stick?
9. What is the use of windows in a house?
10. Describe a tape line.
11. How many inches are there in one foot?
12. What is the difference between a ripsaw and a handsaw?
13. Describe the use of a try square.
14. How is a bevel square used?
15. Why is walnut wood used for furniture?
16. What is the use of the rasp?
17. Why do we have a grinder in the wood shop?
18. What is an oilstone?
19. Is it a good plan to keep the shop clean and neat in appearance? Why?
20. How should finished projects be taken care of?
21. Should the projects made in the shop be allowed to become dirty?
22. Name some of the projects that are made in school shops.
23. What paint is used to get a natural wood finish?
24. When is steel wool used in making a project?
25. What is a coped joint?

Key to Tests

I—True-False Test			
1. T	7. T	13. T	20. T
2. F	8. F	14. T	21. F
3. F	9. T	15. F	22. T
4. T	10. T	16. T	23. F
5. F	11. T	17. F	24. T
6. T	12. F	18. F	25. F
		19. T	26. F

27. F
28. T
29. T
30. F
31. T
32. F
33. T
34. T
35. T
36. T
37. F
38. F
39. T
40. T
41. T
42. T
43. T
44. F
45. T
46. F
47. T
48. T
49. T
50. T

II—Single-Answer Test

1. Cedar
2. Two
3. Yes
4. Hammer
5. Yes
6. Twelve
7. Six
8. Ninety
9. Furniture
10. It is soft.
11. 180
12. A sloyd knife
13. Maple
14. Sixty
15. Pine
16. Paints
17. Rubber tree
18. Windows
19. Screw driver
20. Brace bit

III—Multiple-Choice Test

(1)
(4)
(3)
(3)
(2)
(2)
(4)
(6)
(3)
(3)

IV—Matching Test (Words)

5.
4.
6.
1.
2.
3.
9.
7.
11.
8.
10.
12.

IV—Matching Test (Statements)

6.
9.
8.
2.
3.
1.
5.
4.
7.
10

V—Completion Test Key

1. measuring
2. narrow
3. smoothing

	VI—Identification Test
4. driving	
5. pointed	18.
6. squaring	20.
7. large	17.
8. holding	6.
9. boring	13.
10. wood chisel	4.
11. smoothing	3.
12. setting	14.
13. surface	8.
14. smoothing	12.
15. workbench	1.
16. planing	15.
17. pulling	7.
18. grain	9.
19. dividing	5.
20. sharpening	11.
21. iron	19.
22. end grain	16.
23. nail holes	10.
24. protect	2.
25. hard	21.

Art Education for the Deaf

By FELIX KOWALEWSKI, B.A.
Instructor in the West Virginia Schools
Romney, West Virginia

THE INDUSTRIAL world of today is a highly specialized one. Trained workers are in demand in order to keep the wheels of industry running smoothly and steadily. Thus it is that our schools for the deaf are wisely placing a greater emphasis on the vocational training of the deaf child. But long contact with precise machinery makes automatons of trained workers. Perhaps this may be all the better in some respects, but it is a fact that the creative element is still of great value in most of the industrial mills of today. Care should therefore be taken to impart some amount of this creative element in the deaf child during his school years, and it should be begun at an early age.

The blind, because of their handicap, rely much more upon their other senses, especially upon the sense of hearing. In the same manner, the deaf person's sense of sight is quickened and made more acute by extra duty. The blind are taught to appreciate music; in fact, they do so almost unconsciously. Very often they become adept musicians themselves. The deaf cannot hear music; therefore, their own unconscious appreciation of art should be further encouraged, and they should be taught to develop a strong creative sense.

In the primary grades of the modern classroom the normal child is taught the names of objects through pictures of the objects or by means of actual contact with them. Associations are developed in every way, but the sound of the spoken word and its pronunciation-peculiarities for each object have an especially marked effect. As a consequence he learns quickly, easily, and well. With the deaf child, however, the sound advantage is lost, and the learning process is thus slowed down. The hearing child has the further advantage of natural association-sounds such as "Bow-wow," "Moo," "Choo-choo." The deaf child remembers name-associations of objects by means of mental pictures of these

objects. Although the senses of taste, smell and touch play an important part in the learning process, the deaf child learns almost entirely by visual perception, receiving a more acute impression of the object through its outline, shape, colors, distinctive peculiarities, through the shape and sequence of the printed or written name, through the manually spelled letters, singly and as a whole, that form the name, through the characteristically natural sign-language designation of the object; and through the peculiar shaping and movements of the instructor's mouth and lips in pronouncing the name.

With proper training, this perceptive advantage of the deaf child can be turned to his benefit. Greater stress should be placed on color, form and line. The child should be urged to draw various objects as often as possible; his color and line-rendition should be stimulated; and later on, he may be asked to draw some object from memory, or else be allowed to give free rein to his imagination. It is a noticeable fact that in the crude scrawlings of children of a tender age, the deaf child seems able to draw much better and has a much better sense of color and line than his normal brother. When this elementary fact is overlooked as the child grows older, the advantage is lost as the hearing child receives the greater benefit of a well-ordered public school training, which includes a definite amount of free artistic expression.

To be quite frank, a handicapped person is looked upon by normal persons as more or less a nuisance. But the majority of the blind have rectified this opinion by the wonder, respect and enjoyment that they have inspired in the people around them by their renditions of music. The deaf should be taught to make better use of their sight, especially toward the development of artistic talent. Not all deaf persons, under this theory, can be artists in the accepted sense of the word, but they should likewise be able to inspire wonder, respect, and admiration in the people around them by their excellence in some one or other particular branch of fine and applied arts and crafts or in industrial arts.

To quote Mary Strickler LaRue, in a recent article in the

ANNALS: "The art teacher has discovered hidden talents in the retarded groups. Weaving, basket making, stenciling, coloring and every art device is used. It is surprising what fine work some of these children can accomplish."[1] But why limit this training to the retarded groups? If these groups can turn out such surprisingly fine work, what cannot a properly trained advanced group do? Art education and creative ability should be part of the educational program, directly or indirectly, of the deaf child throughout his school life. The intermediate (and most impressionable) groups might be taken to visit museums and exhibitions where they could have contact with the beauties of form and color of a higher plane of art. Periodic visits might be developed into a game, the person in charge of the group pointing out the affectations of a certain painting and its painter, or statue and its sculptor, and how to perceive and identify these affectations. For instance, in a Corot landscape the warm dark colors, the dark tree masses, the small open space, either in the middle distance or in the far distance, and the intriguing spots of red or white that characterize the caps and blouses of Corot's figures could be noted. Then again, in the case of the sculptor and his work, let us take Malvina Hoffman; the pupil learns that the sculptor is a woman, that she is still living, that she has traveled a great deal, and that she specializes in portrait busts of people of distant and primitive countries; he is shown an example of her work and the characteristic force of it. With such a basis to work on, the game begins. The pupils look around them, and their pleasure and interest are aroused in recognizing other works of the same artists. The effect is strengthened when they recognize pictures of these works in newspapers and magazines. The creative element is stimulated and they want to do something similar to what they have seen, or to emulate the technique of some particular artist. Where museums and exhibitions are not available, there is a wealth of material to be found everywhere for

[1] LaRue, Mary Strickler, "A Plan for Retarded Deaf Children," ANNALS, Vol. 82, No. 5 (November 1937), pp. 445-449.

picture-study, and the same game can be played with art magazines, books, and picture sets.

At about this stage those who have shown marked ability can be singled out for further special training in whatever particular branch of fine or applied arts they may excel. Who knows but that from such a group may step forth another Washburn, de Zubiaurre, Hannan, or Stevens to add to the ranks of truly great deaf artists.

Mechanical drawing, drafting, and architecture might be included in the school course, as well as poster making, sign painting, dressmaking and designing, batik work, metal work, and other arts and crafts. The advanced groups could attend exhibitions of applied and industrial arts and thus keep in touch with the practical arts and crafts of the times. If the children are properly trained from an early age, the creative element should show itself strongly in their later work, and should be much more to their practical advantage than machine-like training alone. With the present movement for art in American industry, and the art-consciousness that has swept the country, the deaf, with their keenly appreciative sense of sight and their undisputed manual dexterity, should, with proper training, find a great new field for themselves on the creative side of our modern industries.

General Information Test Suggestions

By L. R. DIVINE, E.E.
President of the Louisiana School
Baton Rouge, Louisiana

THE FOLLOWING general information questions have been found adaptable for lip-reading classes, extra-curricular activity and for general classroom work when the spirits of the children are at a low ebb.

It has been our experience that the pupils take a keen delight in this project, and when the same test is repeated a few weeks later there is an 87 per cent improvement in grades over the first time the test was given.

A careful check of the work of each pupil may be made by using a diagnostic score sheet. This sheet lists the pupils in the first column and in successive columns to the right checks the responses to each question, R. or Wr., with two columns at the extreme right to record the total number R. and the total number Wr. The totals of the horizontal and perpendicular columns should be the same, indicating respectively the number of pupils giving the correct response to each question and the number of correct responses made by each pupil.

Twenty questions at a time have been found to be the most desirable number for the best results. However, the upper grades usually take fifty questions at a sitting. We find that a general mixture of questions is more desirable than to classify questions into relative groups.

Questions that concern people and places familiar to the children taking the test can be substituted for those herein given that have only local or sectional significance.

QUESTIONS

1. In what kind of building do we attend school?
2. How often do Leap Years occur?
3. How many is half a gross?
4. What four-legged animal can cut down a tree?
5. How much is the fare for a single ride on the street car?
6. Draw a table, a chair, a bed and a stove across the top of your paper. What are these articles called?

7. Why are typewriters made of iron?
8. About what time does the sun set in July?
9. Name the song that is used to open the services in many churches.
10. What is the English name for Baton Rouge?
11. What is meant by an automatic pistol?
12. Where is your "Adam's apple" located?
13. What do you mean by "basting meat"?
14. Name a universal organization of boys.
15. What is the name of a broom or cleaner that is run by electricity?
16. What is the name of the building where electricity for our lights is made?
17. Is black a color?
18. Name a famous oak tree in New Orleans.
19. Make a figure twice your age.
20. What are the oldest living things in the world today?
21. Who is the school building janitor?
22. Who was Edward M. Gallaudet?
23. Put your age in a double circle.
24. Which is heavier, a pound of iron or a pound of feathers?
25. Where is Little America?
26. Write another word or name for etiquette.
27. When was the Louisiana State School for the Deaf founded?
28. One quarter of fifty cents is how much money?
29. Is there any difference between a physician and a surgeon? What?
30. What is meant by farm products?
31. State the difference between a tree and a bush.
32. Who was Bruno Hauptmann?
33. Print the alphabet.
34. Name a large cave in the "Blue Grass State."
35. What river is known as the "Father of Waters"?
36. Where has Admiral Byrd been?
37. Who is Helen Keller?
38. Who flew the first airplane in this country?
39. Name five makes of automobiles.
40. Name four modern means of transportation.
41. Name a daily newspaper and a well known magazine.
42. What is a foreigner?
43. When making soup, should the soup-bone be put on in cold water and cooked slowly or put in hot water and cooked rapidly? Why?
44. What material is most universally used in making clothing?
45. How is our building lighted?
46. Direct me to do something.
47. Where is the stratosphere?
48. What is a report card?
49. State the distance from our school to the L.S.U. Stadium.
50. Define homonym. Synonym.
51. What kind of heat do we have in our buildings?
52. How long does it take you to walk to town?
53. On what day does Christmas fall this year?
54. In a book of two hundred five pages, what page would mark the middle of the book?
55. Why do bees fly to flowers?
56. If you were driving a car on a lonely road and should suddenly discover that your gasoline was all gone, and if you could see nothing but a house some distance away, what would you do?
57. What causes floods?

58. Draw a half-dollar, a penny, a dime, a nickel and a quarter across the top of your paper. If you had all these coins in your purse, how much money would you have?
59. Why are raincoats made of rubber?
60. Which would you rather have, twenty-four cookies or two dozen cookies?
61. What time would you have to get up to see the sun rise?
62. What is our national anthem?
63. What is the Indian name for Baton Rouge?
64. Why do you suppose a fountain pen is so named?
65. Write your full name and cross out every other letter.
66. What are your optics?
67. What part of your foot is the sole?
68. What is a soft-cooked egg?
69. What does, "Make it snappy" mean?
70. What is Mars?
71. What letter comes before s in hemisphere? What season comes after winter?
72. What is the difference between spectacles and nose-glasses?
73. Ask a favor of me.
74. What is your nickname?
75. A century is ————.
76. Draw a stepladder.
77. What part of the apple do people usually throw away.
78. Print your father's surname. Write your mother's full name in longhand.
79. Why do football players go into a huddle during a game?
80. Draw a vase upside down.
81. What is another name for a hole in your tooth?
82. How many legs has a piano? Where are the piano keys?
83. What do we mean when we say the Capitol City?
84. Why are mosquitoes and flies harmful to man?
85. Spell restaurant backwards. What is a restaurant for?
86. What is another word for large?
87. Tom's stepmother is his father's ————.
88. What is the difference between a wall clock and an alarm clock?
89.

————————croaks	————————squeaks
————————moos	————————hoots
————————clucks	————————caws
————————crows	————————trumpets
————————brays	————————bleats
————————mews	————————quacks
————————hisses	————————gobbles
————————squeals	————————howls
————————peeps	————————chirps
————————neighs	————————buzzes
————————coos	

90. Draw a circle and put a cross in the center of it.
91. What "mistake" did Douglas Corrigan make?
92. Jot down the names of five things you saw during Christmas.
93. A refrigerator is ————.
94. Name a book of the Bible.
95. Are doughnuts baked or fried?
96. Draw a pair of high shoes and a low shoe.
97. Name the principal parts of a rose.
98. Write the second line of the Star Spangled Banner.
99. Why is Greta Garbo called a star?

100. Who is called the father of his country?
101. What is meant by gravitation?
102. Is a whale a fish or mammal?
103. Name the best selling book in the world.
104. What is the difference between a hydroplane and an airplane?
105. Name the primary colors.
106. How much are two bits?
107. What is a time table for?
108. Which is longer, a yard or a meter?
109. Name a department store in Baton Rouge.
110. If a person said that he felt "so-so," what did he mean?
111. Of what use is morphine and opium?
112. What does a 4-H club do?
113. When is the Doxology used?
114. Name the president of Gallaudet College.
115. What is a quadruped?
116. Name our Civil War president.
117. What name is given to the God of War?
118. What is the meaning of "anti"?
119. What is the color of a ruby?
120. Is there a semi-active volcano in the United States? Where?
121. Who is Mr. T. H. Harris?
122. Does the mercury in the thermometer rise or fall when the weather turns cold?
123. What are Democrats and Republicans?
124. Why is L.S.U. having a diamond jubilee celebration?
125. Where does an Oxford student go to school?
126. What should be done with a worn-out American flag?
127. What is meant by compulsory education?
128. What is a curfew bell?
129. Why is our school paper called the *Pelican?*
130. What is dog wood?
131. Tell me how to find the laundry.
132. What is an airport?
133. Who became the first Eagle Scout in Troop 8?
134. What did Florence Nightingale do?
135. What kind of floor covering do we have in the halls in the school building?
136. Name five resources of your native state.
137. Why do we put stamps on letters?
138. Why is gasoline called motor fuel?
139. What person has been employed by our school longer than any other person?
140. Why is a double boiler used in cooking?
141. Of what use is a thermos bottle?
142. Why do we prick pie crust with a fork before it is baked?
143. What is a dumb-bell?
144. What is a termite?
145. Define loyalty.
146. Did the thirteen original colonies include Texas?
147. If you saw some geese flying north, what season of the year would it be?
148. What name is given to the man who leads a band?
149. In arithmetic, what is meant by the term dividend?
150. What is the difference between art and domestic art?

For Variety in Drill

By Mary Strickler LaRue
Instructor in the West Virginia School
Romney, West Virginia

THIS is a group of devices and exercises collected for use with a retarded class.

They are not all original. Some of them have been taken from books (often changed to suit the children); some the writer has been told, and still others have been devised as a result of seeking more and more variety in everyday drill.

They are listed here with the thought that perhaps teachers of similar classes may find use for them.

Arithmetic

Flash cards have always had their place in drilling upon the various principles in arithmetic. They can be used in the following manner:

1. Appoint two captains to choose sides. Show the flash cards, first to a pupil of one side then to one on the other side. Those who make mistakes must sit down. The side with the last member standing wins.

2. Show two flash cards at the same time for more advanced pupils. Ask the pupils to give the sum total.

3. Pass out flash cards, one to each pupil. Call upon pupils as rapidly as possible. Pupils stand, show card to the class and call upon someone to answer it.

4. Place a row of flash cards in the chalk trough. Give a number. Pupils must point out the flash card or flash cards whose answer is the number given.

Throwing game: Take a sheet of chart paper and arrange numbers in a haphazard fashion, thus:

1	4	8	4	6	7	3	10	5	8	6	10	3	4
5	6	3	6	3	5	2	6	1	7	8	3	9	1
7	10	7	4	10	2	5	8	7	3	2	3	4	4
9	4	5	9	4	5	9	8	6	7	2	3	5	3
2	8	2	1	6	8	3	1	4	7	1	5	2	2
3	7	1	6	8	3	4	5	7	2	10	3	6	8

Lay the sheet on a desk in front of the room, perfectly flat. Use a small disk for throwing. (A piece of toy money has been found to do very well.) The child stands about three feet from the desk and throws the coin on the number sheet twice. Each time another pupil records the number on which the disk lands. The two numbers are added. This is the pupil's score. If the disk misses the sheet either or both times a zero is recorded. The score keeper writes down the score of each pupil. The one having the highest score wins. Variations of this game:

(a) Blindfold the pupil who throws the disk.

(b) Place the sheet on the floor. Use a small bean bag.

(c) Place number sheet on the chalk trough. Blindfold the pupil. Have him point to two numbers.

This game may be used for subtraction, multiplication and division also.

Hidden Number game: Write a number on the slate. Cover. Tell the pupils you have written a number that is less than ..... and more than..... The pupil who guesses the number or nearest the number may take his turn at the slate.

Catalogue exercise: For more advanced classes catalogues can be the means of an interesting and instructive period in arithmetic. Tell each pupil that he has a certain amount of money. Let him make out an order of articles he desires, figuring the weight and postage, and limiting the order to the amount of money he has. Each pupil should have a catalogue and time will be saved if it is given out to look at after school hours.

Temperature reading: Teach the children how to read a thermometer. Have a temperature reading every morning for several weeks. One pupil may record it on an allotted space on the slate near the weather observation.

Odd games:

1. Add the number of letters in your first and last names. Subtract them. Multiply them. Find the sum total of all three. See who has the highest number; the lowest number.

2. Use textbooks. Turn to pages ..... and ..... Add

the number of lines on each page. See who finishes first with the correct answer.

3. Count and add together:

the chairs in the room
the pictures on the wall
the erasers
the pencils on the teacher's desk
etc., etc.

4. Give a number, for example, 10. Have the pupils list all the combinations to which 10 is the answer. As:

nine and one
eight and two
seven and three
six and four
five and five
four and six
three and seven
two and eight
one and nine
two and two and two and four
three and three and three and one
four and four and one and one
two and three and two and three
five and three and two
seven and two and one
eight and one and one

Language

Games and exercises afford grand opportunities to teach language, such as:

..... won.
..... had the lowest score.
..... had the highest score.
....'s team defeated ....'s team.
It is ....'s turn.
I ordered a .... and a .... .
.... cost .... .
.... paid ..... for the .....
My score is .....
There are .... lines on page ..... .
The sum total is .... .
I have chosen .... .
.... made a mistake.
May I be the captain?
I am on ....'s side.
The temperature is .... .
It is warmer today than yesterday.
It was colder yesterday than today.
The temperature has gone up .... degrees.

Miss Edith Fitzgerald's Mental Development suggestions have been found invaluable for drill, especially for vocabulary drill.

(a) Jumbled letters:

Names of vegetables

spae
rotracs

qhsuas
ninoos
nreeg nbeas
ahpsinc
etc.

Have the words put in order.

(b) Write as many words as you can from

Abraham Lincoln

or from any other name that you may wish to designate.

(c) What are these words . . . ?

p....l	b..k
p.n	t...e
c...r	f...r
l....t	w...h
p.....e	h...e
f....r	w....w

(d) Write five words ending in l.

Write five words beginning with c.

The teacher decides the number and letter of the words.

(e) Give the opposite of these words:

true
weak
fast
rich
careful

(f) Make another word from each of these words:

ate (eat)	reed (deer)
was (saw)	tar (rat)
ten (net)	pot (top)
on (no)	sore (rose)

(g) Draw a line around the words within these words:

kitten (it) (ten)
fast (as)
tan (an)
asleep (sleep)
upon (up) (on)
today (to) (day)

For memory development:

1. Blindfold one pupil. Change seating of two children. Remove the blindfold. See if pupil can detect the change and re-arrange the children. (There may be more than one change, depending on the capacity of the children.)

Clothing such as sweaters, scarfs and accessories (rings,

watches, tie pins, bracelets and hair ribbons) may be changed, too.

2. Arrange a group of objects on the table in a certain pattern. Blindfold pupil. Change the order of objects or remove an object. Pupil (after the blindfold has been removed) must tell what has been changed or what has been removed.

3. Write a large number like 167,384 on the slate. Cover or erase quickly. See if the pupils can reproduce it.

4. Have a series of pictures that tell a story. Show in correct order. Mix them up. Have pupils arrange them correctly.

Health Topics

Exercises:

1. Have each pupil dramatize a health rule. The class decides which rule fits the action. A pupil writes the rule on the slate.

2. Dramatize, describe or draw a situation that involves the necessity of a health principle. Ask the pupils what should be done. Or pictures may be shown. For example, show a picture of a boy with the toothache. Ask, "What should the boy do?"

Answer: He should go to the dentist.

Health rule: Go to the dentist twice a year.

3. Use completion sentences, matching, and multiple-choice exercises, too.

History or Geography

1. Write questions on small slips of paper. Fold and hide in different parts of the room. Pupils search for the questions. Write on the slate the question which they find and the answer.

2. Questions on the slate. Write numbers on small slips of paper. Place in a hat or container. Each pupil chooses a paper and answers the question on the slate whose number corresponds to the one on his paper.

Miscellaneous

I. S. F.

Technique for Audiometric Testing in the Public Schools.—Dr. Frank P. Maguire, chief of the Division of Health and Physical Education in the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction, describes in *Public Education* for May 1938, Monthly Bulletin of the Department, the requirements for an effective audiometric testing program in the public schools. The commendable features of the procedure are: (1) The recognition of the seriousness of the problem as it relates to school children and (2) the precautions set to assure precision. The details follow.

One of the most gratifying trends discernible in Pennsylvania schools today is the increasing scrutiny being turned on the physical equipment of children. Recent studies indicate that a large proportion of school children are handicapped in their school work and retarded in their progress through school because of subnormal hearing acuity.

It may be well to emphasize the fact that an impairment of hearing is a health problem and health problems are school problems. School administrators especially should consider this carefully, for hearing and health are closely related. It has been our personal observation in our audiometric testing program to date that no teacher, however previously unsympathetic to the program of ascertaining the constitutional equipment of school children, can remain indifferent to the problem of hearing deficiencies after her own pupils have been tested and the recording sheets scored.

General Suggestions

When the audiometer reaches a school district, the hearing acuity test, if possible, should be offered to the teachers. The papers need not be collected but the key should be read to them permitting each teacher to score her own paper.

The person in charge of the testing will send to the principals of schools, a week in advance, the date on which the testing will begin, the probable duration of the testing program, the grades to be tested, class record sheets, and a list of requirements for carrying on the test.

Grades to Be Tested

Because of the skills involved, the 4B audiometer test cannot be given successfully as a group test in the first grade. It is difficult without unusual technique to administer it in the second grade. The test will therefore begin with pupils in the third grade. Even with children of this age-level considerable skill and technique are required.

Requirements for Audiometric Testing

1. A quiet classroom.

It is essential that the tests be given in a quiet room. Too much emphasis cannot be placed on this feature. For this reason, a room

near the gymnasium, shops, music room, and the like cannot be used. A room free from any and all outside noises, preferably on the top floor, should be assigned for the testing. It is not desirable to seat the children at long tables. A classroom furnished with individual desks should be selected, if possible.
2. Three letter-size filing folders for each room.
3. Four dozen sharpened lead pencils.
4. Forty blotters approximately 4″ x 9″ to deaden sound of pencils on desks.
5. Four empty waste paper baskets on which to place the ear phone trays.
6. Two silence placards to be placed in halls near the testing room.
7. A box of paper fasteners.

New Location of the New York School.—The New York School for the Deaf, so long and familiarly known as the Fanwood School, during the past summer effected complete removal of the school to its beautiful and new site and plant in White Plains, New York. The new address is New York School for the Deaf, Knollwood Road, White Plains, New York. The progress of construction of the new buildings has proceeded at so favorable a pace that it seemed likely they would be in readiness to receive the pupils on the opening of the new school term.

Summer Meeting of the Association.—The American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf held its Summer Program Meeting from June 27 to July 1 at the Detroit School for the Deaf, Detroit, Michigan, before an enthusiastic gathering. Dr. Gertrude Van Adestine, principal of the school, was in charge of preparations for the meeting.

At the opening session, Dr. E. A. Gruver, president of the Association, pointed out in the opening address present-day tendencies and the outlook in the education of deaf children.

The keynote for the meeting was "Helping the Deaf Child Find His Place in the World." Each of the sessions in turn revolved about some phase that would help develop the major theme, that is, Through Better Speech, Through Better Lip-Reading, Through Better Language, Through Better Understanding at Home, Through Better Use of Hearing.

Each of these fields was considered in discussion by prominent educators both in and out of work with the deaf.

At the business session Thursday afternoon, June 30, five members of the board of directors were re-elected, for the term 1938-1941, as follows: Mr. John Yale Crouter, superintendent of the Rhode Island School, Mr. Frank M. Driggs, superintendent of the Utah School, Dr. Max A. Goldstein, director of Central Institute, Mr. A. C. Manning, superintendent of the Western Pennsylvania School, and Mr. Clarence D. O'Connor, superintendent of the Lexington School. Also, Miss Margaret Bodycomb, acting superintendent of the Pennsylvania School, was elected to fill an unexpired term, 1937-1940.

Changes at Gallaudet College.—Among the changes announced for the staff of Gallaudet College this fall are the following:

Mr. Louis L. Hooper has retired as business manager and Mr. William P. Hughes has succeeded him. Mrs. Hazel T. Craig has retired as assistant professor of domestic art and Miss Adelaide Keller, graduate of Drexel Institute, is to take her place. Miss Margaret L. Yoder, graduate of DePauw University, has been added to the faculty of the college department.

A research department will be inaugurated with Prof. Irving S. Fusfeld in charge. Mr. Jonathan Hall, graduate of Rollins College and of the Normal Class of Gallaudet College, will be Research Fellow and will also assist in teaching in the college department. Problems which may be considered during the year in research work will include a study of the language of the deaf, a study of vocations pursued by the deaf in the District of Columbia, suitable vocations in which the deaf are not at present engaged, measurement of hearing and eyesight of deaf pupils and students. Already one state school has invited the new research department to make a survey of its curriculum and other matters, and, if possible, favorable response will be made to requests from one or two other schools if they desire this type of work done during the coming school year.

A Study of Vocational Training Opportunities Offered in Day-Schools.—Since it is during the school age that the handicapped person must obtain the foundations for vocational training, the proper guidance and the opportunity for self-appraisal of his abilities and disabilities, it becomes a matter of importance to determine the extent to which such opportunities are at present available. As an effort in this direction the U. S. Office of Education secured information from a representative sampling of day-schools for the handicapped and the result is embodied in a booklet compiled by Dr. Elise H. Martens, senior specialist in the education of exceptional children, of the Office of Education, with the title "Occupational Experiences for Handicapped Adolescents in Day-Schools."

This information is summarized under two main sections, the Mentally Handicapped and the Physically Handicapped, the latter including only the blind and the partially sighted, the crippled, and the deaf and hard of hearing. For the deaf and hard of hearing, facts were obtained from 37 day-school centers in sixteen states for a total of 1,440 children thirteen years old or over. This number represented practically one third of all the children enrolled in day-schools for the deaf during the year this study was undertaken, 1936-1937, as recorded in the ANNALS for January 1937. The data further revealed that for this group only 58.4 per cent were receiving vocational training. This of course is in striking contrast with the situation prevailing in the usual state and public residential school where the percentage of children receiving occupational preparation must be much higher.

The report explains the fact that among the physically handicapped, including the deaf and hard of hearing, the proportion of occupational training opportunities for day-school pupils is lower than it is for the mentally handicapped mainly by the likelihood that the former "may go on to advanced high-school work or college; some may be working toward a professional career requiring long years of academic study."

Those who furnished the information for the study indicated by "an overwhelming majority" that it is better for

physically handicapped adolescents to take their work in the same vocational classes with physically normal pupils, with the reservation that the handicap in question should receive special consideration and help. Some dissent from this opinion seemed to indicate that each case should be dealt with as an individual consideration.

With respect to types of occupational experiences offered it was found that moderately hard-of-hearing children are not at so great a disadvantage as the profoundly deaf. With the former the lesser hearing loss, with the compensation of hearing aid and lip-reading, permits wider choice of vocational training; with the latter, especially if the handicap has existed from birth or early age, the speech and language problem adds to the difficulty of adjustment. Thus the greater proportion of profoundly deaf pupils reported as enrolled for vocational training were in lines in which communication with others could be reduced to a minimum.

Part of the information obtained from local supervisors had to do with the most common lines of vocational activities engaged in by pupils after leaving the day-schools. In their order of frequency, the list included the following, indicating in the main occupations in which extended communication is not essential:

Trades and industries.—Auto repair, baking, bookbinding, cabinetmaking, carpentering, electrical work, lettering, metal work, painting and paperhanging, pattern making, plumbing, printing, shoemaking, sign painting, tailoring, tinning, toolmaking, upholstering, watchmaking, weaving, welding.

2. *Factory work,* of miscellaneous type.

3. *Personal service.*—Barbering, beauty culture, child care, cooking, dressmaking, housework, laundering, millinery.

4. *Office work.*—Bookkeeping, cataloging, comptometer operation, filing, proofreading, statistical work, typing.

5. *Agriculture and allied fields.*—Farming, fishing, forestry, fruit raising, gardening.

6. *Professional or semiprofessional service.*—Advertising, commercial art, designing, drafting, landscape gardening, optometery, pharmacy, photography.

7. *Selling.*—Store clerking, paper routes.

8. *Miscellaneous activities.*—Dishwashing, fuel and ice plant work, truck driving.

Summarizing the findings and opinions obtained for the report, an outline of the main items of a desirable day-school program for the physically handicapped in the ado-

lescent years is presented. These items—characterized broadly as an adequate educational background for every pupil, intelligent guidance to a vocational choice, opportunity to take trades training with normal pupils, co-operation between the school and industry, and between school and other interested agencies—are as follows:

1. Broad and enriching educational experiences, with progressive vocational guidance but without specific vocational preparation, at least through the elementary grades and through one or more years of high school, depending upon the student's aptitudes and interests.
2. Continuous study of the individual child by a teacher trained in guidance methods, in co-operation with a specialist in school counseling. Diagnosis of his abilities and interests, and exploration in early adolescence of his vocational capacities through interviews, aptitude tests, try-out courses, and other guidance techniques.
3. Analysis of local occupational opportunities that are open to the pupil in the light of his handicap; contacts with employers to secure their interest and co-operation.
4. Specialization in a vocational field after graduation from high school; or, in cases of manifest need or desire, during the high-school years.
5. Such specialized preparation to be given in the regular school with physically and mentally normal students; transfer to a special school to be made only when facilities required by the chosen occupation are unavailable in the regular school or when there is obvious need of protective measures due to extreme disability and accompanying factors.
6. Co-operation and supplementary assistance to be given by the Vocational Rehabilitation Service, as a state agency responsible for the training and placement of physically handicapped persons of employable age.
7. Co-ordinated activities on the part of all local placement agencies, looking toward the satisfactory placement of the physically handicapped youth.
8. Follow-up services until a happy adjustment on the job is achieved.

The booklet, known as Bulletin 1937, No. 30, U. S. Department of the Interior, U. S. Office of Education, may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., for fifteen cents per copy.

Certification.—Since publication of the last list in the May ANNALS, the following teachers have submitted applications for certification with the Conference, bringing the total to date to 889:

Edward Joseph Abodeely, Arizona School
Donna Fish Brannigen, Ohio School
Carrie Lou Brooks, Texas School

Jane Offutt Burton, West Virginia School
Sister Jane Catherine, St. Mary's School
Sister Mary Conrad, St. Mary's School
Eunice Lucille Dissinger, Ohio School
Madge Dolph, New York School
Anna Myrtle Gose, North Dakota School
Hartley Haigler, Texas School
Mary Frances Hicks, Louisiana School
Charles Milton Jochem, New Jersey School
Lucile Hudson Carter Kaune, New Mexico School
Alice Jane Lawrence, Indiana School
Margaret Abernethy Lillis, Arizona School
Raphaelena Martino, Arizona School
Lettie Walker McKinney, Gough School, San Francisco
Sister M. Basil Mohr, St. Mary's School
Esther Lillian Myklebust, Nebraska School
Nannie C. Orr, American School
Stanley Albert Patrie, Louisiana School
Sister M. Hubert Pollard, St. Mary's School
Utten Ellis Read, Cincinnati, Ohio
Mary Celestia Ross, Ohio School
Frances Therese Seiz, Nebraska School
Nora Myrillia Townsend, British Columbia School

The Life of Mrs. Mills.—To commemorate the fortieth anniversary of the founding of the School for the Deaf in Chefoo, the pioneer of its kind in China, Miss Anita E. Carter, principal of the school, has written a "Sketch of the Life of Annetta Thompson Mills, Founder of the Chefoo School for the Deaf." In this booklet, Miss Carter portrays the zeal and the devotion which characterized the self-sacrificing efforts of her aunt in bringing education to deaf Chinese children, particularly the strenuous program she laid out for herself to arouse world-wide interest in the project she had initiated.

Miss Carter presents a stirring picture of the struggle which became her aunt's life work. The task which the latter assumed so cheerfully was hardly a sinecure; it was in every sense a missionary enterprise. In a strange land, she had to arouse an interest in behalf of a group of children

who had always been condemned to utter neglect; she had to find the means of support for the tiny school when funds were not available; she had to carry on the work of the classroom; she had to train other workers for the same field, and she had to direct the extension of her work to other parts of China.

Those who have contributed to the support of this worthy cause may have the satisfaction of knowing that Mrs. Mills' achievement, having taken root, extends into the broader reaches of humanity. It is the story of a remarkable woman as well as of a remarkable accomplishment.

Death of Monsignor Gerend.—The Rt. Rev. Msgr. Mathias Maria Gerend, who for almost fifty years had been director of St. John's Institute for the Deaf at St. Francis, Wisconsin, died April 26 of this year. Under his long administration of the school—he was appointed its rector in 1889—it grew into an expanded, modernly equipped institution. In addition, Monsignor Gerend was prominent in numerous missionary activities, though his main interest continued to be the school for the deaf at St. Francis.

American Education Week 1938.—The program for American Education Week 1938, adopted by the three national groups sponsoring American Education Week—the National Education Association, the U. S. Office of Education and the American Legion—has been announced as follows:

General theme: *Education for Tomorrow's America*

Sunday, November 6—Achieving the Golden Rule

Monday, November 7—Developing Strong Bodies and Able Minds

Tuesday, November 8—Mastering Skills and Knowledge

Wednesday, November 9—Attaining Values and Standards

Thursday, November 10—Accepting New Civic Responsibilities

Friday, November 11—Holding Fast to Our Ideals of Freedom

Saturday, November 12—Gaining Security for All

The above program should furnish every educator the

opportunity for a searching examination of the objectives that guide his or her work.

The Mechanical Ability of Deaf Children.—In a study conducted at Teachers College, Columbia University, under the sponsorship of Dr. R. Pintner, Dr. Mildred B. Stanton compared the performance of equated groups of deaf and hearing children to obtain an evaluation of the mechanical ability of deaf children. A report of this study is now available in book form, *Mechanical Ability of Deaf Children,* by Mildred B. Stanton, Ph.D., Contributions to Education, No. 751 (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938).

The evaluation was determined from a comparison of the performance of a group of 121 deaf boys and 36 deaf girls with that of a similar number of hearing children, the groups being matched for sex, age, nationality of parents and occupational level of the father. The two groups ranged in age from twelve years to almost fifteen. The deaf children were recruited for the study from the New Jersey School and the New York School and the control group was drawn from public elementary schools in New York City.

The chief instrument for comparison was the Minnesota Test of Mechanical Ability, with a modified testing technique worked out so that it could be used with deaf children. The battery included Minnesota Paper Form Boards, A and B, Spatial Relations Boards, A, B, C and D, and the long form of the Minnesota Assembly Boxes, A, B and C.

Among the findings of this study were the following. It appears that the deaf boys are at least the equal of the hearing boys in mechanical ability, as judged by the above test, when age, nationality and parental occupational level are the same. With the deaf girls, however, there seems to be a tendency to be inferior to hearing girls when the same factors operate.

The study seems to indicate a superiority of the New Jersey School boys over the boys of the New York School.

The deaf boys tend to show superiority to the deaf girls in mechanical ability.

Both the deaf group and the control group were inferior in mechanical ability to the hearing group on which the Minnesota Tests were standardized.

In intelligence, as determined by the Pintner Non-Language Mental Test, the deaf group indicated a slightly higher score level, though the difference did not prove statistically reliable.

A higher relationship was found between the Minnesota Test scores and intelligence when measured by a non-language test than when the intelligence test was a verbal one.

There was little relationship between the Minnesota scores and such factors as the father's occupational level, the amount of shop experience of the children, and degree of residual hearing.

The range of mechanical ability as revealed by the tests was a wide one for deaf children as well as for the hearing, indicating that not all of them would be favorably inclined toward that sort of training which would be best suited to mechanical aptitude, that is, shopwork. Individual guidance, based on individual differences, rather than a blanket-program of vocational training, should be the rule.

Dr. Stanton's final conclusion may be found in the closing paragraph of the book:

> Other studies have shown that the deaf are markedly handicapped in relation to the hearing wherever verbal intelligence plays a part. This study seems to indicate that they are very similar to the hearing in mechanical ability. This aspect of their education should, therefore, be emphasized in order to compensate for their handicaps in other directions, and in order to allow them to compete more nearly on equal terms in later life. At the same time it must not be imagined that the deaf are specially endowed with mechanical ability. If the Minnesota norms are valid for the hearing in general, the deaf are handicapped even in this respect. At least they come nearer to the hearing in this area, but their potentialities have not been realized.

Reports of Schools.—The following reports of schools have been received:

1. Seventy-fourth and Seventy-fifth Reports of the Superintendent of Alabama Institute for Deaf and Blind, for the period ending June 30, 1936.
2. Forty-first Annual Report of the Montana State School

for the Deaf and the Blind and the Montana State Training School for Feeble-Minded, 1935-1936.

3. Sixty-third Annual Report of the Central New York School for the Deaf, for the year ending June 30, 1937.

4. One Hundred and Eighteenth Annual Report and Documents of the New York School for the Deaf (to the Legislature of the State of New York) for the year ending June 30, 1936.

5. Annual Report, 1936, School for Deaf-Mutes, Ahmedabad, India.

6. Seventieth Annual Report of the Lexington School for the Deaf of New York City, for the year 1936.

7. Verslag over het Vier-en-Tachtigste jaar van haar bestaan, 1937; Inrichting Voor Doofstommen-Onderwijs, Rotterdam.

8. Sixty-first Annual Report, South Australian Institution for the Blind and Deaf and Dumb, for the year ending September 30, 1937.

9. Sixty-seventh Annual Report of the Mackay Institution for Protestant Deaf-Mutes, year ending June 30, 1937.

10. Algemeen Verslag, Instituut Voor Doofstommen, Groningen, 1937.

11. Report of the Charles Rogers Mills Memorial School for the Deaf, Presbyterian Mission, Chefoo, China, 1935-1936 and 1936-1937.

SILENT FILMS OUR SPECIALTY

Although silent films are no longer distributed by any of the major film companies, we still have a very fine selection of educational and recreational films available for distribution to schools, colleges, universities and other institutions. Write for our 1938-39 catalog and prices.

INSTITUTIONAL CINEMA SERVICE, INC.

1560 BROADWAY, NEW YORK CITY

1560 BROADWAY NEW YORK CITY

LOGICAL SYSTEM OF LANGUAGE-TEACHING
and
AN ANALYSIS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE
(A Manual for Teachers)

By MARIETTA RECTOR VINSON
Instructor in the California School for the Deaf

A professional book at an average price for professional books.

Ask yourself whether you know what must be taught in order to teach the English language as a whole or, even, in your particular department; whether you are developing language in logical sequence (not teaching mere fragments of language); whether you are able to organize language fully and in logical steps for the purpose of teaching; whether you know the vocabulary which distinguishes the various language principles; whether you have the material necessary to teaching and for graded drills; whether the system which you use is satisfactory for all phases of the work. If you can answer all of these questions affirmatively, you probably do not need this book; if you cannot answer them affirmatively, then you do need the book.

Test your upper-grade pupils in the uses, among other things, of the verb *do*, the primary and upper-elementary tenses, original and indirect questions, comparison applied to attributive adjectives, comparison as to number and amount, clauses of condition, clauses of purpose, the use of *some* and *other* as adjectives, relative adverbs, and the various uses of the participle. If the pupils can use these principles satisfactorily, your school probably does not need this book; if they cannot use them satisfactorily, then your school does need the book—in every grade.

The Logical Way gives the pupil a chance to learn languages as a whole, not just fragments of language.

Price, $6.00 postpaid.
Discount—A discount of 20% is given on orders for five or more copies.

Send orders and inquiries to M. Vinson, P.O. Box 236, Berkeley, Calif.

OUTLINE OF LANGUAGE WORK

BOOK I, Revised
With Methods of Presentation of the Work of the First, Second, Third and Fourth Years.
Price per copy, $2.50

Send orders to

EDITH M. BUELL
15 Prescott Avenue, Bronxville, N.Y.

BOOKS FOR USE IN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

English Book I, for Upper Primary Grades..... $ .60
English Book II, for Intermediate or Grammar Grades..... .60
English Book III, for High-School Grades, and a self-instructor.... .75
First Lessons in Geography, by Grace M. Beattie of the Colorado School 1.00
English Phrases and Idioms, by Dr. J. L. Smith of the Minnesota School 1.60

Published by the State School for the Deaf, Columbus, Ohio

STRAIGHT LANGUAGE FOR THE DEAF
BY EDITH FITZGERALD
Third Edition (Revised) Price, $3.15 postpaid.
Order from
THE STECK COMPANY, Austin, Texas

BOOKS FOR THE DEAF
By MARGARET J. STEVENSON

THE LIFE OF JESUS (Revised)
For Primary Classes. Cloth; Price, 30 cents net.

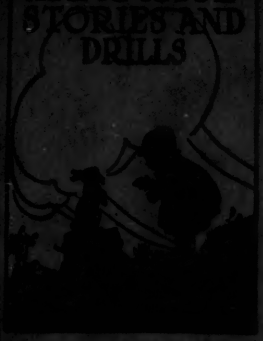
PRIMARY GEOGRAPHY, NUMBER I (Revised)
Cloth; Price, $1.00 net

PRIMARY GEOGRAPHY, NUMBER II
Cloth; Price, $1.00 net

NATURE FACTS (Revised)
Used correlatively with Primary Geographies.
Cloth; Price, 80 cents net

Send All Orders Direct To

MARGARET J. STEVENSON, OLATHE, KANSAS



"Language Stories and Drills"

Books I, II, III and IV

Gertrude W. Croker, Mabel K. Jones and M. Evelyn Pratt

Illustrated by Tony Sarg

Price per copy, $1.25

Teachers' Manuals, $.50 Postage not included

Send orders to

CROKER, JONES & PRATT
Public School 47, 225 East 23rd St.
New York City

MIAMI SCHOOL FOR DEAF CHILDREN

Specializing in Teaching Speech to the Totally Deaf from Three Years of Age by a Novel Method described by Dr. Max F. Meyer in his Book "LIVING INTO A SILENT WORLD.—The First Six Years of Life" published by the University of Missouri Press, April 1934 ($1.25)

Florida Climate—No Smoke—No Acid Air—No Dust—Same Temperature All Seasons—Outdoor Life—Best Medical Service—Open 52 Weeks of the Year—Entrance Any Day—Moderate Cost—Educational Supervision by Dr. Max F. Meyer

Address: MIAMI SCHOOL FOR DEAF CHILDREN,
The University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida

"TALKS AND STORIES"

Contains nearly a hundred short stories and seventy-five conversations for practice in language, prepared by WILLIAM G. JENKINS, M.A. Single copy, 60c.

"WRITTEN EXERCISES ON DIRECT AND INDIRECT QUOTATIONS"

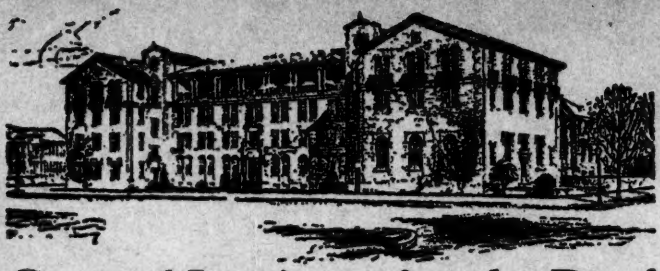
By J. EVELYN WILLOUGHBY, late instructor in the Clarke School. Single copy, 40c.

"THE STORY OF AMERICA FOR LITTLE AMERICANS"

By GRACE M. BEATTIE, Instructor in the Colorado School. New Edition. Price, single copy, $1.00.

Published by the

AMERICAN SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF, West Hartford, Conn.



Central Institute for the Deaf

NATIONAL RESIDENTIAL AND DAY SCHOOL
FOR THE DEAF AND DEFECTIVES IN SPEECH

Approved by Advisory Council of Foremost Ear Specialists and Educators

New fire-proof buildings beautifully located opposite Forest Park. Modern Dormitories and Equipment. Best home environments. Pupils constantly in care of teachers or experienced supervisors.

Oral School for Deaf Children. C. I. D. offers all advantages of exclusively Speech Training and daily expert medical supervision of both Resident and Day Pupils. Education and Training from Kindergarten (three years of age) to College.

Classes for Hard-of-Hearing Children. A new department has been established for the special training of Hard-of-Hearing children in Lip-Reading and Speech; all grades. Salvaging of Residual Hearing is a specialty of the Institute. The Acoustic Method was created here.

Lip-Reading Instruction for Adults, Private and Class Instruction for the adult deaf. Conversational Classes for advanced pupils.

Correction of Speech Defects. Correction of Imperfect Phonation, Indistinct Articulation, Lisping, Stuttering, Stammering and Aphasias.

Teachers' College. This department of the Institute is a Unit of Washington University and accepts applicants with adequate college qualifications. Two years' training with graded special curriculum constitutes the training course. Graduates receive degrees of Bachelor of Science in Education from Washington University.

For further information address

Dr. Max A. Goldstein, Director - - - Miss Julia M. Connery, Principal

818 S. KINGSHIGHWAY, ST. LOUIS, MO.

THE BARRY FIVE-SLATE SYSTEM

One of the Best and Most Scientific Systems
of Teaching
Language to Deaf Children

PRICE $2.50 NET

Send Orders to

THE COLORADO SCHOOL FOR DEAF AND BLIND

COLORADO SPRINGS, COLORADO

GEORGE BANTA PUBLISHING COMPANY, MENASHA, WISCONSIN